

JOURNAL



OF A

VOYAGE DOWN THE ELBE.

CHAP. I.

Saxony prepares for War in 1805. — Peace of Presburg. — Confederacy of the Rhine. — Reasons for forming it. — Ill-timed Declaration of War by Prussia. — Pernicious Consequences resulting from the Publications against the Prussian Government. — Bonapartè seizes a favorable moment to open the Campaign. — Fatal Effects of Prussia's yielding up her Possessions on the Banks of the Rhine. — Part of the Prussian Army passes through Dresden. — Commencement of Hostilities.

THE distant roaring of the cannon at Austerlitz was heard in Saxony; the Elector's troops had marched towards the frontiers, and part of the artillery was on the road to join them, when an armistice, almost immediately followed by the peace of Presburg, put an end to all warlike preparations.

The treaty concluded with Prussia, and the negotiations commenced in Russia and England, gave us hopes of remaining peaceably and pleasantly a short time longer on the conti-

ment. Few people, indeed, believed that the calm would be of long duration, but still fewer had an idea that it would so *very* soon be followed by a storm; not that it were possible the world could be ignorant of the plan formed by Bonapartè*; but no one thought it probable, that circumstances would enable him soon to carry it into execution. The truth, however, is, that Bonapartè, at the very moment he was trifling with the public, by amusing it with insignificant negotiations with England and Russia, permitting his newspapers to announce the retrograde march of his troops, and even fixing a day for their return to France, always kept a watchful eye on the warlike preparations of Prussia. But before he entered into any serious explanation with that power, he was determined to consolidate the Confederacy of the Rhine, which he was determined should furnish him with a variety of specious pretences for attacking the north of Germany.

It is difficult to surmise, by what cruel fatality Prussia was induced to enter the lists with France. Unassisted by her allies, she was at *all times* unequal to such a conflict; What then could have been her hopes at a moment like that? The Great Frederick, though crowned with laurels, was perfectly convinced of this truth, and has indirectly mentioned it in some of his writings.

The triumphant army of Bonapartè was in the heart of Germany; the body of reserve, and the *conscripts*, were already possessed of Wesel and Cleves, which perfidy or folly (perhaps both) had contributed to deliver up to them. The English, Russian, and Swedish troops had evacuated Hanover; Hesse had entered into a negotiation with France: What

* See Appendix.

a time to excite Prussia to retake her possessions in Westphalia, and on the Banks of the Rhine, and to attempt forming a counterbalance to the Confederation of the South of Germany!

The German, French, and English literati united together to place the past pacific conduct of Prussia in the most unfavorable point of view; this indeed was no difficult task, and might easily be excused: but it remains to be proved whether the repentance of that government being known and acknowledged, it was either just, wise, or politic, to declare to the world, and that in the severest terms, that Prussia had lost an opportunity never to be regained; to prove the weakness and nullity of that power who had voluntarily deprived herself of the assistance of Russia, Sweden, and England; to divulge her secret negotiations with the enemies of France, and to declare that in less than twelve months, her situation would be still more deplorable than that of Austria.

Whatever might be the motives which, after the peace of Presburg, dictated such publications, the result was terrible: *

* We were present at a conversation between some gentlemen of different nations, who would have felt much mortified if their opinion had not been thought of the greatest importance, and who decidedly declared in a numerous society that the Prussian* army would be *no more than a breakfast* to the French: These very men, the following day, complained in the bitterest terms of the Prussians not taking the field; whilst their friends not only approved the incendiary and libellous papers published against the person of the king of Prussia, but laughed at the revolutionary tumults, which had taken place at Berlin; and this from the idea, that such commotions alone could induce the Prussian Cabinet to declare war. Such were the men so pure, so loyal, who boasted of their being the only real supporters of the *good cause!* which, it appears, too plainly, they merely embraced, lest an avowal of their favorite sentiments might be attended by the most fatal consequence. The issue of the unfortunate events which had taken place in France, Italy, Holland, and Germany, ought to have served

since the king himself, so respectable in private life, and so deservedly beloved by his subjects, was insulted in the person of his Ministers; his Capital disturbed by scenes equally absurd

as an example, and induced them to pursue a very different line of conduct, particularly as they may well be suspected of being more than mere witnesses of such events, since not one amongst them has fallen a victim to the glorious cause they pretended to defend. What renders them still more inexcusable is their knowledge, not only of the existing laws in the best regulated European Governments, which forbid a subject to attack in any manner whatsoever the person of the king; but the just and reasonable motives which caused their being enacted.

The present king of Prussia was scarcely seated on the throne, when the most indecent libels were published against him; they were indeed of so flagrant a nature, that it was thought necessary to forbid their circulation. Prussia, however, was the only country, in which there were no *prohibited books*; where booksellers indiscriminately exposed to sale, the Bible and the most licentious authors; where the most scandalous and dangerous libels published by the favorers of the French revolution were offered from house to house, and even distributed amongst the dregs of the people; and where the most irreligious and immoral pamphlets were the first translated.

These publications had made such rapid progress, and were attended by such dreadful effects, that, ever since the year 1790, not only Prussia, but the whole of Germany, was ripe for a revolution; and if these principles are now in a great measure eradicated, it can only be attributed to the fatal consequences of the French revolution—consequences which have disgusted even the greatest favorers of such innovations.

We can never forget that when we were at Berlin in the above-mentioned year, we saw more pictures of *Mirabeau*, *La Fayette*, and other French revolutionists, than in any other city, even Paris not excepted. The post-office was generally assailed by fourteen or fifteen hundred people when letters from Strassburgh were expected, and the conversation, which was sometimes really shocking, varied according to the intelligence received. On returning to Berlin in 1803, I was happy to find the public opinion greatly changed, and every one detesting the French revolution. With such sentiments, the Prussians, independently of all national self-love, must have suffered cruelly from the visit of the French army; so much so indeed, that it will be long ere any person, whatever may be his politics, will venture to express a wish to see it a second time in his country.

But to return to those authors who dared to speak with such acrimony of the king and his ministers, and to those of their friends who extolled their works with equal violence, it is but justice to admit, that it would be scarcely possible to quote one, who did not shortly see his error, and severely repent his having committed it.

and scandalous; and royalty itself no longer the object of respect and reverence, on his unseasonable declaration of war against Bonapartè, who, amidst the most solemn protestations of amity, continued acting secretly against him: and was happy to embrace the first opportunity of openly declaring war. Unlike the king of Prussia, whose fear of infringing the treaty with France prevented his permitting the Russians to enter his territories before a formal declaration of war had taken place, he was resolved not to subject himself to the same reproaches. For Bonapartè did not lose a moment, but instantly opened the campaign; laughing inwardly at the time chosen by his enemy for commencing hostilities, and still more so, at the generous motive which induced him to stop the march of his allies. Too great a general to neglect a favorable opportunity, he was determined to hasten his attack; for he was perfectly well assured that the Russians were too proud of their able retreat from an enemy of thrice their force, to believe the laurels they had gathered on the banks of the Danube and at *Krems* could be faded by the disastrous action in the marshes of *Austerlitz*. He also knew, that if they had abandoned a field of battle, where they had every reason to believe they might soon have recovered their losses, and gained a victory, it was merely in compliance with the request and entreaties of their ally; and that Alexander, far from having countermanded the march of his troops into the interior of his vast empire, or disbanded any part of them, had, on the contrary, sent the most positive orders to accelerate their arrival, and augment their numbers. In short, Bonapartè was convinced that Russia alone could frustrate his plans, and overturn his deep-laid schemes of ambition. Thus situated, he never forgot what he had frequently heard both from friends

and enemies, that two hundred thousand Prussians, joined by Russians, Austrians, English, and Swedes, would infallibly place the French army in a most critical and embarrassing situation, even after his success in Moravia. He therefore hastened to strike a decisive blow before his enemies had time to unite their forces.

Prussia soon perceived the irremediable fault she had committed in giving up her possessions on the frontiers near the Rhine — possessions uniting the double advantage of retaining in her dependence the countries between that river, the Ems, and the Weser, and serving at the same time as a line of defence. Such a strange concession must render the name of its author as odious to Prussia as to the rest of Germany, since it has rendered France exclusive mistress of all the strong ports adjacent to her frontiers on that side of the Rhine: consequently, those countries which were not protected by the advanced fortresses of Prussia, became immediately under the protection, or rather entirely dependent on France.

The electorate of Hesse, the natural, and till the moment the most faithful ally of Prussia, was forced to abandon her, without gaining any advantage from such a dereliction.

Saxony was not more fortunate in adhering strictly to her first engagements, since she was instantly threatened with being first attacked by the enemy.

A great part of Prince Hohenlohe's army passed through Dresden before we left it; the troops were perfectly well disposed to the cause, and the enthusiasm of the officers, particularly of the younger men, was extreme. It certainly was laudable, but ought to have been kept within reasonable bounds; since some were imprudent enough to talk of the French at *Rosbach*, to smile at the misfortunes of their an-

tient rivals the Austrians, and to intimate that what could not be achieved by a hundred and sixty thousand Prussians, could have *very* little, or indeed *no* chance of being performed by the combined forces of the whole of Europe.

Hostilities had scarcely begun, before a variety of different reports were spread in Dresden; but so much had we been deceived the year before by accounts of the defeat of the French at Austerlitz*, that we were very cautious how we gave credit to the advantages said to be gained by the Saxon and Prussian army; and no official confirmation being received of this success, the faint ray of hope, which for a moment had enlivened the public mind, instantly gave place to a general consternation. Every one trembled at the threatened danger: some indeed resolved to brave it, whilst others immediately prepared for flight. As foreigners, we adopted the latter plan; but to attempt to describe our feelings on the occasion, and our grief at the necessity of adopting a measure so opposite to our wishes and intentions, would be doing injustice to those feelings, and give but a faint idea of the impression made on us by such a succession of untoward events: We will, however, flatter ourselves, that the distinguished persons we so particularly regretted will judge us worthy of the sentiments they are formed to inspire — sentiments as impossible to describe upon paper as to be weakened by absence.

* These reports appeared to be well founded, having been taken from letters written by the most respectable people, such as the Prince de Swartz....rg, &c. &c.

CHAP. II.

Embarkation on the Elbe. — Necessary Preparations for such a Voyage — Regret at leaving Dresden. — Remarkable Objects between that City and Meissens. — Toll Duties attended by great Inconvenience. — Intelligence received of the heroic Death of Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia. — The Cannonade at the Battle of Halle distinctly heard on the Elbe after passing Dessau.

THE season being still sufficiently favorable for a journey by water, we determined to go down the Elbe to Hamburgh. The accounts received from the army, though only at a very few days' journey from Dresden, being various and uncertain, we hastened our preparations for departure, to which we never looked forward without forming a wish that it might still be delayed.

We hired a covered boat, containing three persons, with a large open space at the head, in which was a kitchen exposed to the air. This place was spacious enough for a carriage, baggage, and for the boatmen to row: at the stern of the vessel was another space, rather smaller, employed for a variety of purposes. The crew consisted of four men, besides the master, who bore the title of captain, and prided himself extremely on having taken Lord Nelson in his boat to Hamburgh. With him we made a bargain for 250 Saxon dollars * for the whole of the voyage. A

* When the exchange is at par, a Saxon dollar is equal to three shillings and fourpence.

provision of tea, sugar, coffee, chocolate, beer and wine, should be taken on these occasions. New white bread cannot always be procured on the voyage; but fish, meat, milk, and eggs, may generally be had every day, and at reasonable rates. Those who wish it, may sleep on shore, but the Inns are frequently bad, and in many places incapable of affording accommodations for a family; we therefore brought beds from Dresden, and always slept on board; this we found much more comfortable and convenient, several of the towns being at a great distance from the shore.

The news from the army was so very alarming on the Monday evening (13th of October) that we resolved on leaving Dresden the next morning as early as possible, but, notwithstanding all our exertions, we did not row from the shore till the clock struck eleven.*

On quitting the bridge we cast a tearful eye on the Electoral Palace, so long the residence of virtue and the seat of happiness; the surrounding crowd seemed to partake in our sentiments, and to dread the removal of the former, and the termination of the latter.

The weather was mild, and the wind favorable; so much so indeed, that with minds at ease, we should greatly have enjoyed the beginning of our voyage; but the clearness of the horizon contributed to our melancholy, by presenting to view the smiling banks of the Elbe, decorated with the elegant villas of several of our friends and acquaintance, whose public employments, or domestic affairs, would not permit them to quit this distressful scene.

* We embarked near the bridge, under the terrace of the Brühl Garden, from which the iron railing had been taken away, and cannon planted to command the bridge.

The pavilion at Prisnitz forms a beautiful object. On descending the Elbe, it is situated on the left bank, which is very elevated and extremely picturesque. The opposite shore is flat, but the plain is terminated by mountains, ornamented by a variety of country-houses, vineyards, and plantations.

Before we arrived at Meissen, we were stopped by a floating bridge, thrown over the Elbe to facilitate the passage of the troops, and which was opened every two hours for vessels to pass through. Here we were detained about half an hour, and arrived at Meissen, at half-past three. The approach to this place is truly beautiful;* the town itself, the covered bridge, and castle, form a point of view equally varied and picturesque. We remained here at least two hours paying the tolls, and were very impatient to be gone, but our captain assured us, and his words were but too true, that we should frequently be detained still longer for the same purpose. We would advise all travellers to follow our example, and make an agreement with the captain for the payment of these tolls, which are very numerous, and at very little distances from each other. What contributes to make them tedious and troublesome is, that the different sovereigns to whom they belong, insist on being paid in the coin of their several countries. The houses, too, where the payments are made, are sometimes two or three English miles from the shore. This is highly inconvenient at all times, but particularly after rain, when there are several places almost impassable. The boatmen frequently stop longer than they ought to do, but it is impossible to prevent them, for they are as obstinate as the Saxon postillions, who have that defect to such a

* The elevated and romantic situation of Mr. Miltitz's castle, on the left bank of the Elbe, forms one of the most striking features in this delightful scenery.

degree, that they even withstand the temptation of money: we had, however, no great reason to complain of our crew, whom we bribed on some occasions to make such very fatiguing efforts as pained us to witness. Smuggling has no small share in these repeated delays, especially towards evening, when, though sufficiently light to proceed much farther, nothing can prevent the boatmen from casting anchor for the night.

Disagreeable as are these tolls to a traveller, they are attended by much greater inconvenience to trading vessels, which, though laden with necessary provisions, are detained equally with a pleasure-boat. This we had frequent opportunities of remarking between Magdeburgh and Hamburg.

After walking more than an hour at Meissen, we continued gliding down the stream. The setting sun was beautiful, and gilded the enchanting scenes which presented themselves, for about an hour longer, on each side of the Elbe. The banks were for a part of the way elevated, but then became flat, and continued so the greatest part of the way to Hamburg.

We cast anchor at a distance from any habitation, and on the morrow (the 15th) were stopt to pay the tolls at *Mühlberg*, *Strehla*, and *Torgau*. We inquired eagerly for news at all these places, and were always answered in the same manner: "That they knew nothing with any certainty, that a general battle was expected, (it had already taken place on the 14th), and that the French hussars had laid Leipzig under contribution." This we had learned at Dresden the morning of our departure. Every one, however, agreed in the account of the heroic death of Prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia, who, surrounded by a corps of several thousand Frenchmen, preferred death to yielding himself a prisoner, thus giving an example to the Prussian army, which no officer nor soldier could fail following. We were acquainted

with the prince at Dresden. He was an officer of the most sanguine temper, and it was always thought that he would fall a victim to his rashness. His former wounds ought to have reminded him that French bullets were sometimes but too well aimed; had he, however, on this last melancholy occasion, attended to the dictates of prudence, he most probably would have escaped the fury of the enemy. Both armies have paid the deserved tribute to his valor, frequently declaring, that he fought like a brave soldier, and died like a hero. Such a funeral eulogium will descend to posterity, and palliate those errors, of which, perhaps, some of his contemporaries may deem him guilty.

The spire of Torgau church is seen at a distance, and appears still handsomer on a nearer approach. The castle is large; and the covered bridge is four hundred and twenty feet in length: eight of the piles are of stone, and the remainder of wood. After passing under it, we saw eight water mills on floating pontoons. There are great numbers of the same kind the whole way down the river, particularly at Magdeburgh. A little beyond Torgau, we passed a stud of stallions and brood mares belonging to the Elector. Farther on, the inhabitants near the river have sunk fences close to the edge, formed of wattled hurdles; and, in some places, planted young willows to raise a live hedge, in order to defend the banks from the overflowings of the Elbe, and to prevent the ground from falling in: there are likewise stone piers in some parts, to break and turn off the force of the stream.

After passing the night in the same kind of isolated situation as the preceding one, we set off as early as possible the next morning. The idea of the French being at Leipsick, only two days' march from Torgau, induced us to lose no time in flying from so dangerous an enemy. We were, however, detained, as usual, by the tolls at *Pretsch*, where the news we heard was far

from satisfactory, and made us still more eager to continue our voyage; particularly as the corn and wood magazines on the left bank on the Elbe, between *Pretsch* and *Wirtemberg*, seemed very likely to attract the attention of the enemy. Before we arrived at the last-mentioned town, the sky was absolutely clouded by flights of wild ducks and geese, and we scarcely passed a day during the remainder of the voyage without seeing great numbers: some of these birds permitted us to row very near them. This threatened severe weather, which, as we had only one stove in the vessel, would have been very disagreeable: fortunately, however, we suffered no inconvenience from the cold, for though there was a little white frost almost every night, it was quickly dispelled by the morning sun.

We were obliged to stop some time at *Wirtemberg*, which, though a post of great importance, had not a single soldier of the regulars within its gates. The bridge over the Elbe is of wood, and so indeed are the eight piles which support the arches. This city merits the attention of the traveller, on account of the University, and the tombs of *Luther*, *Melancthon*, &c.

We passed that night near *Coswig*, where, in happier times, we should certainly have disembarked to have seen the celebrated gardens at *Herlitz*, on the road to *Dessau*: fortunately we did not yield to the temptation; had we done so, we should have had great reason to repent having gratified our curiosity. The morning was so foggy, that we could scarcely distinguish the banks of the river, almost the whole of the way to the bridge of *Dessau*, but, from the *very* little we saw, they appeared to be extremely well wooded. This bridge is entirely built of wood, and they were repairing it when we passed. Here we landed, whilst our boatmen went to pay the tolls. The news they brought

was very alarming. Couriers were continually passing and re-passing, but their intelligence was very contradictory, some bringing the most favorable, and others the most unfavorable accounts. Anxious as we were, we could not possibly quit the bridge of Dessau without admiring the beautiful sheet of water formed by the Elbe in this interesting spot, and the pleasant situation of a little turret, from which a variety of exquisite scenery presents itself on every side.

Scarcely had we returned to our little *drawing-room* before we were surprised by the firing of cannon, which, at first, appeared at a great distance, but came nearer by degrees, and in about two hours ceased entirely. We were not deceived in the ideas we formed on this occasion, having judged that so short a cannonading, which seemed to approach us, though the sounds grew weaker, could only announce the defeat of the army between us and the French. We soon after landed at a ferry, and conversed with an old Prussian officer who was walking, with some others, on the bank of the river. He either was, or pretended to be, ignorant of the disastrous state of his army, and expressed great impatience for an account of the last engagement. He, however, told us that the Duke of Brunswick had been dreadfully wounded in the eye, and had crossed the river the evening before. There was a relay of carriage-horses waiting on the shore, which the old officer told us had been there a considerable time, in expectation of the Prince of G——, who arrived just after we had re-embarked. He was attended by only one person, who appeared to be an officer. They immediately changed horses, and got into the ferry-boat, which passed at no great distance from our vessel. As I thus had an opportunity, I ventured to address myself to him in French, no longer doubting of the unfortunate event which had taken place at the battle

of *Halle*; “Does not your Highness think,” asked I, “that it would be dangerous to continue our voyage to Magdeburgh?” — “I do not believe it will,” very obligingly answered he in the same language. This prince travelled in a hunting calash made of wicker, plain, and light; he had no baggage, and his attendant only a leathern bag fastened to a belt, like a sportsman’s pouch. The approach to *Barby* is extremely beautiful, but we did not venture to admire it too long; and the moment the toll was paid, we continued our voyage, thinking ourselves very happy in being able to proceed nearly three miles farther that evening.

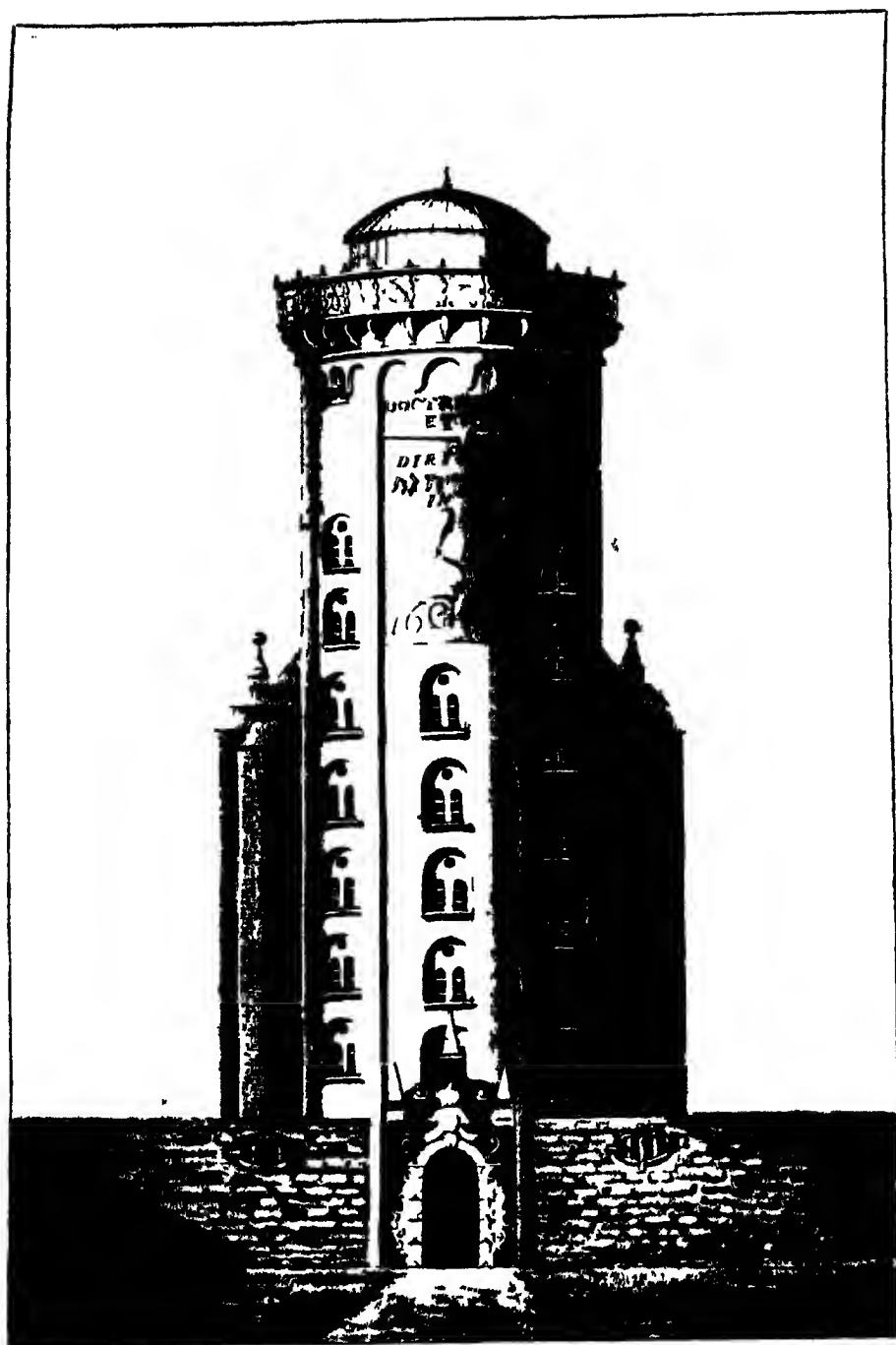
CHAP. III.

Arrival at Magdeburgh. — Melancholy Appearance of that Town and it's Environs. — Alarming Intelligence received. — Voyage delayed till the Evening. — Vessels coming up the Elbe with provisions for Magdeburgh detained by the Tolls. — Easy Method of preventing this Inconvenience. — Contrary Winds oblige us to stop. — Journey by Land to Hamburgh. — Arrival of my Friends, and Account of their Voyage.

EARLY the next morning (Saturday the 18th) we distinguished the smoke from the salt-pits at Schönbeck. The town appeared as having suffered from a terrible fire, scarcely half extinguished. Our boat stopped on the opposite bank, where we could not learn any particulars of the battle the day before ; but what confirmed our apprehensions, were the orders just received from the Prussian government to remove all the public money from Schönbeck.

Though eager to proceed, we were detained some time ; there being two tolls to pay on each side of the river. . Soon after embarking, we perceived the spires of Magdeburgh, where we had reason to believe, we should gain *certain* intelligence of all that had passed from the opening of the campaign ; for hitherto the accounts had been as contradictory as those at Dresden.

On arriving at Magdeburgh, what a melancholy spectacle presented itself to view ! The whole country was covered by a line



of waggons, which extended beyond our sight, and were filled with the sick and wounded, and their baggage. The ramparts were lined with soldiers as if besieged by the enemy. The dry ditches were full of carriage-horses and their drivers, both worn out by fatigue and fasting, the greater part having neither eaten nor drank for more than twenty-four hours. The cannon, and the ammunition and other waggons came on so fast, that the town, large as it is, was presently entirely filled. In vain was it that it was represented at the gates, that it was impossible to admit more, that the squares, courts, and streets, were already crowded with carriages; still those who arrived continued rushing in, till at last they were forced to open a passage into the large inclosure of the advanced fortifications. This, some of our party witnessed; and words cannot do justice to the distress of the inhabitants, who appeared terror struck. Those from the suburbs hastened to bring their most valuable effects into the city; and on my inquiring at the custom-house for the principal clerk, they pointed out a boat in which he also was going to the town with his beds and families. All these circumstances continued to alarm us, especially as no one was allowed to go through the bridge, vessels of every kind being obliged to pass by the same sluice. Even those laden with provisions, which ought to have landed their cargoes, and returned to fetch fresh supplies, were detained equally with pleasure-boats; indeed the latter, by means of money, frequently accelerated their departure. The critical situation of affairs made no change in these forms, which, though sometimes perhaps useful, were now attended with very ill consequences. Alterations in this particular might easily be made, without affecting the interest of the crown. The great Frederick had enacted that all carriages and vessels, whatsoever might be their lading, or the place of their

destination, should remain a stated time at every station, custom-house, or toll-house; so that no driver, nor master of a vessel, should have reason to complain of being obliged to continue his journey, without having reposed for some hours. This regulation was disapproved even during the reign of that monarch, which makes it surprising it should have existed so long. Travellers being detained in ale-houses and inns cannot possibly be advantageous to a nation; and an able minister cannot be ignorant that the countries easiest of access are the most frequented; that the less difficult it is to transport merchandise, the cheaper it is; and that the fewer obstacles thrown in the way of traders and travellers, the more they are induced to quit their native place: consequently the only method to attract foreigners, and to encourage trade, is to facilitate the approach to a country, and to impose as little restraint as possible upon the interior circulation.

It appears very extraordinary, that in so commercial a city as Magdeburgh, there should be only one sluice, which is opened only once in two hours; and then only three vessels are admitted at a time. Fortunately for us, our captain obtained permission, by a *douceur* of twenty dollars more than the customary duties, for his boat to enter the sluice out of it's turn, and, against the rule, as there were already three vessels in it. By these means we had an opportunity to observe that it is rarely not sufficiently spacious to contain more than three large trading vessels, since it was with difficulty we crowded in ours, though comparatively a small one. Having once got out of the sluice, we flattered ourselves, that we should meet with no farther delay, but in this we were mistaken; for scarcely had we passed the fortifications, before another toll detained us above an hour. Here I landed, and walked to the last wooden bridge between the town and

country. At the same moment a hussar arrived full gallop, and stopping, whispered the officer who commanded the nearest post to the bridge; he then immediately rode into Magdeburgh. This officer was in the artillery, and never quitted the cannon planted in that place, for the purpose of destroying the bridge: it was ready pointed, and the cannoneers, with lighted matches, only waited for the signal to fire. Having observed a decent dressed citizen talking with this officer, who appeared much alarmed on quitting him, I ventured to ask him, what news was brought by the hussar? I was answered "that the French would be in sight in an hour." This most disagreeable intelligence I kept to myself, not wishing to alarm my fellow travellers, but my impatience to proceed can easier be imagined than expressed.

At last we quitted this ill-fated shore, but, though our boatmen were very alert, and rowed on with great perseverance, we could only go seven miles beyond Magdeburgh; for the Elbe being full of sand banks in that part, it is scarcely possible to avoid them in the dark. We passed the night in a solitary spot, at some distance from the shore. The morning of the 19th was beautifully fine, and we set off very early; but we had only proceeded half an hour, when we felt our vessel touch the ground at different times, and at last we were completely stranded in the middle of the river. Our boatmen, during two hours, vainly endeavoured to extricate us from this distressful situation, and appeared to despair of success. After what we had heard of the rapid march of the French (which, however, proved not exactly true) it is to be supposed, that our feelings were not of the most enviable kind. Several vessels passing by, we called for assistance, but no one chose to risk striking on the same bank. We then offered a reward to our crew, which induced them to renew their efforts; and joining our strength to theirs, we at last succeeded

in getting the vessel afloat, and continued our voyage. The left Bank of the Elbe is in several places finely wooded; but we remarked very few good houses: the only handsome one belongs to Count Schmillembourg; a little beyond which is a row of newly-built alms-houses.

Before we arrived at *Tangermünde*, the Elbe forms a considerable angle: fourteen miles from the above-mentioned place is a toll-house, so inconveniently situated that we were necessarily detained a great length of time. We passed the night near *Tangermünde*, where we walked about, and were much astonished to find the inhabitants entirely ignorant of the late events, though the Queen of Prussia had slept in the town the night before. From thence, till within fifteen miles of *Wittenbergen*, the Elbe is crowded with small islands and sand banks, which make the navigation very difficult. We, however, were happy enough to avoid them, and to arrive safely at *Sandau* on Monday the 20th at noon. Here we were detained a considerable time, there being two toll-houses, distant from each other. The King of Prussia had passed through the town, and proceeded as fast as possible to Berlin, whither the French were making forced marches. We could now no longer doubt of the total defeat of the Prussian army; indeed the scenes we had witnessed at Magdeburgh gave us but too much reason to believe it was the case. The ill effects of the delays caused by fiscal forms were particularly obvious between *Sandau* and *Hamburg*, since we met numbers of large vessels laden with provisions of all kinds for Magdeburgh. The first of these informed us there were above three hundred more bound for the same place, which we afterwards found to be a fact. They eagerly inquired concerning the state of affairs at *Magdeburgh*; and, on our assuring them, that they must not lose a moment, if they wished to arrive in time to enter the port, they

declared the frequent tolls made it impossible to proceed more expeditiously: but though they certainly were exposed to real danger, not one of them expressed the least dissatisfaction. They had, however, the advantage of a favorable wind, which continued nearly a fortnight, and which delayed us extremely; but we could not complain of a circumstance, which we hoped might be productive of such good consequences. The inconvenience suffered by these vessels at so important a moment, naturally led us to inquire, whether a method might not be found to obviate it? and we immediately thought, that it would be easy to place flat-bottomed boats on the river, of the same kind as those on which the millers erect their houses and mills. The custom-house officers, their clerks, &c. would then have a better opportunity of examining vessels and receiving the tolls, and the trader and traveller would be presently at liberty to continue their voyage, and, even if they wished it, could have no plausible pretext for delay. The custom-house indeed might object to this new kind of dwelling, but the discontent of a few individuals is trifling when compared to the general utility of such an arrangement. Besides it is but reasonable, that those who live at the public expence, should sacrifice their personal interest to the public good; and I am perfectly assured that this plan would be a great saving to Government, and produce advantage to commerce beyond all calculation.*

Our boatmen were so extremely fatigued with rowing constantly against the wind, that they were obliged to stop for the night fifteen miles short of *Wittenbergen*. After passing that town the following morning, the Elbe was again crowded with small islands and sand banks. We landed at a small village† in

* We have since heard that the French have removed all these difficulties.

† Small as it is, it contained no less than five slaughter-houses.

Hanover, where, though the custom-house officers were not very strict in examining the baggage, we were detained some time. They were equally indulgent at *Lenzen* in the Prussian territories, which is half a mile from the shore. There we cast anchor, and passed the night in company with ten or twelve vessels laden with provisions for Magdeburgh, which were not suffered to proceed till past ten in the morning, though the custom-house officers had time enough to examine them the evening before, and though they knew the importance of the commission with which they were charged.

The wind rising and blowing violently, we could not possibly proceed any farther; and being told that it might probably continue in the same quarter for several days, I consulted with my fellow travellers, and determined upon going by land to *Hamburg*. The idea of being separated from my friends, and leaving them exposed to dangers which they thought it more prudent in me to avoid, was so very painful, that I was more than once tempted to return, during my walk to *Lenzen*. I, however, went on to that town, where I was informed at the post-house, that orders had been received to keep seventy horses in readiness. A species dollar (four and sixpence) induced the hostler to provide me with an open waggon and a pair of miserable horses. The first post was twenty-five miles, (before it was measured they only charged twenty-one) and the road so dreadful, that it would be scarcely passable for a large English carriage. I was, however, driven tolerably fast, and found a very excellent inn at *Lupthen*, which, though large, was so crowded, that ten or twelve people, who arrived some hours before me, were forced to remain in their carriages. The master of the inn spoke good English, and taking me for a *courier*, invited me into his own room, and promised to procure me a peasant's waggon and a pair of

horses; he added, that he was greatly embarrassed, having a hundred horses bespoken, and that he was going to send an express to order eighty at every post, the whole of the way to *Hamburg*. I gave a mark (sixteenpence) to the man who carried the express, to order me likewise a post waggon and pair, which he faithfully promised, but forgot to keep his word. I passed a wretched night in my open waggon, it raining violently, and blowing a strong north-east wind in my face. I was five hours in going the seventeen miles between *Lupthen* and *Boitzenbourg*, where I found no horses ready at the post-house, and was told I could not possibly have any for seven or eight hours. Two light carriages-and-four arrived at the same moment, and received the same answer as myself. I entered into conversation with these travellers, who were Jews from *Leipsick*, and who told me they had been constantly within sight of the French ever since they had left that town; adding, that they would give any sum for horses sooner than fall into their hands. This induced me to bribe my postillion with a species dollar, who presently procured me a pair, and I went the twenty miles to *Eschburg* so fast, that I soon passed the two light carriages, though they had paid enormously for double the usual number of horses, and rewarded the postillions most handsomely. *Lauenbourg* is the only remarkable place on this road, and when time is not wanting, is well worth seeing. A Swedish officer at *Eschburg* asked me very politely for my passport, and when he heard my name, almost insisted upon my dining with him. I could not help acquainting this hospitable officer of the fate which awaited him, and the troop under his command, should they persist in remaining in their present situation: "You know the king," replied he, "and not a Swedish soldier, let the number of the enemy be what it may, will ever quit his post, till he has received orders to abandon it."

Impressed with sentiments of admiration for a man so heroically devoted to his duty, I quitted him with my heart full, and had nearly been too late for the gates at Hamburg, from having conversed with him so long. Indeed I was the last person who entered the city that evening,* and I had no small difficulty in procuring a lodging at *La Ville de Londres*, (the City of London) which is in much the finest situation in Hamburg, though certainly the dearest inn in the whole place.† My first inquiry was naturally respecting the march of the French army, but no one could give me any exact intelligence, and I did not learn till the next morning that it was at too great a distance to overtake my friends; yet still the wind continued so violent and so contrary, that I suffered great uneasiness; the French marching with such rapidity, and losing no time in pursuing their enemies. Happily, however, on the sixth day after our separation, I was joined by my fellow travellers, who gave me the following account of the rest of their voyage.

“The blustering weather detained us some hours longer in the same place, but towards evening the wind sank, the water became more calm, and our boatmen determined upon rowing on. This was very hard work, the wind still being contrary. The moon, however, shone bright, and for about four hours our voyage was extremely pleasant. We had intended to pass the night close to Dömitz, on the right bank of the river. but the weather suddenly changed, and the water was again so rough, that our boatmen were obliged to cast anchor on the opposite shore. The night was dreadfully tempestuous, the wind and rain were equally

* I was exactly twenty-three hours in going the seventy-eight miles from *Lenzen* to *Hamburg*.

† The other principal inns in Hamburg, are *La Ville de Petersbourg*, (the city of Petersburg) *Le Roi d'Angleterre* (the King of England) *Keiser Hoff* (the Emperor's court) &c.

violent, and it was with difficulty that, on the following morning, we rowed across the river, where we were again obliged to cast anchor opposite Dömitz, which is about three quarters of a mile from the shore. This town is tolerably good : one of the streets is really handsome, and wide though short. Here we supplied ourselves with provisions ; and, hearing nothing of the approach of the French army, passed the whole of the day and night as quietly as the storm would permit us, in our boat ! The motion was, however, so great, though we were lashed to the shore, that it was impossible to sleep ; but towards morning, the wind abated in some degree, and our boatmen were eager to embrace the first opportunity to pursue our voyage. They accordingly set off before we were up, and rowed on with great perseverance till eleven o'clock, when the weather becoming again tempestuous, and being exhausted with fatigue, they stopped on the left bank of the river, near a most beautiful grove of oaks which extended a considerable way. This was in Hanover ; but it was impossible to gain any intelligence of the army ; there being no habitation to be seen but one small cottage, which supplied us with milk and fish. We walked for some time in this truly lovely place ; and whilst we were dining in our boat, saw a body of Prussian cavalry pass on the opposite side of the river : this some of our party mistook for the French, and consequently felt a momentary alarm. A shower of rain falling at three o'clock, the waves sank sufficiently for us to continue our voyage, and we rowed on till late in the evening, lighted by a resplendent moon which shed it's beams on the adjacent country, and formed a beautiful scene. We passed a tranquil night in a little bay ; and at sun-rise set off in extremely fine weather. At breakfast time we stopt at Blekede, in Hanover, to pay the toll, where we procured some good French wine, at a very moderate rate. A little before we reached *Boitzenburg*, on

the right bank of the river, we landed one of our boatmen, who crossed the country to pay the toll, and we met him on the other side of the town, which is prettily situated upon an eminence. Near it is a little bay, which was filled with a variety of small vessels. The shore here was sandy, like the sea-coast; and the land high on that side the whole of the way to *Lauenbourg*, which stands close to the river: indeed, the houses, which are so antient that they threaten danger to the inhabitants, appear dropping into the water. The garrison was composed of Swedes, who made a most military appearance: they were all handsome picked men. Here we landed, and ascended a steep hill, to take a view of the governor's house, which commands a very fine and interesting prospect, of which the town of *Luneburg* forms a striking feature. Our weather continued fine the whole of that evening; but the next morning (Sunday, October the 26th), we were again detained a great part of the day and the whole of the night, near a place very properly termed the *Long Village*, since the houses, though not close together, extend at least ten miles. Here we were much pressed to visit a man, who, with his family, spoke a little French, and who said that *all the quality* coming down the Elbe went to his house. We thanked him for his civility, but preferred remaining quietly in our boat. This man lent us a newspaper, which, however, gave us no fresh intelligence; it contained only accounts of disasters with which we were but too well acquainted.

On Monday the 27th the sun shone propitiously; his beams glittered on the water, which was perfectly calm, and we had a delightful row to *Hamburgh*. The shore on both sides of the river is flat, but the variety of villages and different buildings, which continually present themselves, take off greatly from the

monotony of the scene. The approach to Hamburg is truly magnificent; the size of the city, the breadth of the Elbe, the beauty of the adjacent country, the numbers of steeples, and a forest of masts, all combine to form a noble prospect, easier to imagine than to describe. On entering the harbour, our attention was engaged by the number of vessels from different countries with which it was crowded; our ears were entertained with a variety of languages, and our eyes amused by an equal variety of dresses, the market-boats passing and repassing, gave us an idea of the country, which reminded us of Holland, from the size of the hats, and numbers of buttons. The peasants, too, have the same fresh complexions, for which the Dutch are famous. After waiting some time for a guide to conduct us to an inn, we at last joined our fellow-travellers at *La Ville de Londres*, impressed with the most grateful sentiments for having terminated our voyage without being molested by the general enemy of mankind."

The voyage down the Elbe must be particularly pleasant and interesting in the summer season. A bargain should be made with the master of the vessel for a certain sum to be paid at Werlitz, or any other place the traveller may be desirous to stop at. This voyage has another advantage — that of avoiding a tedious land journey, through bad roads, which present nothing sufficiently agreeable to compensate for the trouble and fatigue.

CHAP. IV.

Hamburgh. — Population. — Public Walks. — Professor Busch's Monument. — Police. — German and French Theatre. — St. Michael's Church. — Observations by Dr. Benzenberg on the Tower of that Church. — Society. — Exchange. — Library. — Senate. — Duties and Taxes. — Articles of Consumption. — Literature. — Inundations. — Environs. — Hospitals. — Manufactories. — Sugar Bakehouses. — Treaty between Prussia and France for Timber.

THE gates of Hamburgh are shut as early as in a garrison town, being never open later than four o'clock in winter, and half past nine in the middle of summer*: it is therefore necessary to arrive in this city during the day. This practice is adopted to prevent the merchants from residing constantly in their country-houses. Altona being scarcely an English mile from Hamburgh, workmen, journeymen, &c. would pass the whole of Sunday at or in the neighbourhood of that town, every thing being cheaper in the Danish territories than in Hamburgh, and consequently houses would let at a much lower rate, and be a great disadvantage to householders, a considerable part of whose riches consist in the exorbitant profits they make by letting apartments.

Hamburgh is very dirty, and almost always damp. The streets are ill paved, narrow, and in many parts made still more incon-

* See Appendix, No. ii.

venient by the houses projecting forward. The latter are built both of brick and wood, and the generality have pointed roofs, forming a triangle in front. The walls are thick, the windows narrow, and so very numerous, with so small a space between them, that those belonging to the lower class might very well be mistaken for manufactories. This indeed is frequently the case in other parts of Germany.

The city is lighted by 1473 reflecting lamps, which are not sufficiently numerous for the size of the town; people of fortune, however, and rich merchants (the number of whom is very considerable) always place two additional ones at their doors. The inhabitants of Hamburgh do not amount to more than one hundred and ten thousand, near twelve thousand of whom are Jews. We indeed heard, during our residence in that city, that it contained above one hundred and thirty thousand; but our informants either wished to deceive us, or were deceived themselves*.

The only public walk within the gates is a kind of mall between rows of trees, on the edge of a large bason, formed by the river Alster, called *Binnen Alster*. This is much longer than it is represented to be by Mr. de Reisbeck, since it requires more than three quarters of an hour to make the tour, it being impossible to skirt it close to the water, there being no quay in several places, particularly on the side near the house of correction. Imagination cannot form a more beautiful spot than this small

* There was indeed a time, during the emigration from France, Holland, and the Low Countries, that there were eight or ten thousand foreigners in Hamburgh. In the year 1795, Baron de Voigt estimated the population of this city at 110,000, and no one had more opportunities of making a just calculation. (See his Letter, already mentioned in the list of authors who have written on Hamburgh). Busching only made it amount to 100,000.

See the Appendix, No. iii.

lake on a fine summer's evening, when it is covered with such numbers of boats, that it has all the appearance of a floating city.

Hamburgh is doubly inclosed on the Holstein side*. The ramparts are planted with trees, kept with peculiar neatness, and form two roads, the one for horsemen and carriages, and the other for foot passengers: they extend almost entirely round the town, and command most beautiful points of view, particularly where the Alster on one side, and the bason on the other, form a water scenery truly picturesque. It is rather remarkable that the Elbe, the only river supposed to be of any consequence by those who never visited Hamburgh, should make no part of so delightful a prospect. The monument erected to the memory of Professor *Busch*, who departed this life on the 5th of August 1800, is a great ornament to this walk, and deserves to be particularly mentioned. It is placed in a conspicuous spot on the rampart, and the expence was defrayed by the *Society for the Encouragement of Arts and useful Trades*, and the voluntary subscription of several inhabitants of Hamburgh. Dr. Meyer, secretary to the society, pronounced an harangue on the erection of this monument, which is executed from the design of the architect *Arens*, and in the form of an obelisk twenty feet and a half in height. It is composed of granite and brown free stone of the country, and was the work of two Hamburgh artists, Mr. *Beckmann* and Mr. *Witgreff*. The ornaments are in bronze and white marble, the former executed by Mr. *Wolff* of Cassel, and the latter by Mr. *Witgreff*. The inscription over the bust is as follows: *To John George Busch, the Friend of his Country.*

* See Busching's Geography, quarto edition, page 463. The city of Hamburgh, including the ramparts, the Alster bason, and the harbour, is about five English miles in circumference, and contains nearly 56,879,400 square feet.

The obelisk is likewise ornamented by allegorical basso-relievos, representing *Civic Love*, and other personages, holding ~~arms~~ and offering libations. Underneath is inscribed, *by his grateful Fellow Citizens, 1801*. The basso-relievos are at present only in plaster, but are to be executed in bronze. There are also two other bronze tablets, surrounded by suitable decorations, with an inscription, marking the year of the birth and death of the citizen to whose honor this monument is erected.

The police of Hamburg is extremely good; for, besides a considerable guard constantly posted in the streets, there are men continually passing and repassing, armed with long staffs, ferrelled with iron, which they strike with much violence on the pavement; consequently, no passenger can be attacked with impunity during the night, or call in vain for assistance. The police is also admirably understood in cases of fire*, which, indeed, is particularly necessary in a town built principally of wood. In consequence of such precautions, there has been no instance for many years of ~~two~~ houses being consumed at the

* See Busching article, Hamburg, vol. vi. page 462, who thus expresses himself: "With respect to the regulations made here relating to fires, every person who can be of any assistance, either far or near, knows precisely the part he is to act, particularly the engine-workers, who belong either to the fire office, the artillery, or ship-engines, and who at certain stated periods are exercised: the militia also, of whom some must always be ready on the least alarm, with fire-buckets in their hands, and others as a reserve, who stand at places appointed for them. Further, the institution of the *brand-wachen*, or fire watchmen, which was made about twenty years since, is also very worthy of observation. This consists of certain persons, distinguished, like the engine-workers, by their white frocks and large fire-caps, who, both during the winter and summer months, when the wind is high, or when, by the long continuance of it at east, the canals are grown dry or shallow, are obliged to patrol the streets all the night, and to make a clattering on the stones with the poles which they carry in their hands. For other concerns relative to the security of the city, watchmen go their constant rounds; the business of these is only to keep a look out against any appearance of fire; and by these means many small fires are got under at their first breaking out."

some time. A few days before our arrival, a house caught fire ; the whole was entirely destroyed, and nothing remained but some ruins and the chimney, which, being blown down the following day, a young woman was killed and several others wounded. This chimney was known to be in a very ruinous state, but, as the insurers of houses pay much less when that part of the building is left standing, it was unfortunately suffered to remain : a plain proof that even the most praiseworthy institutions are liable to abuses. Flambeaux are prohibited in the streets, and that for the above-mentioned reasons.

The number of carriages in Hamburgh is so great, every merchant in easy circumstance keeping one, that on a fine summer's evening they absolutely form a procession towards the gates of the city. The regulated price for a hired carriage within the walls is six marks, and eight * for a drive into the country. A single course is only a mark ; but, what is very extraordinary, every person who is set down by a friend either in his own carriage or in a hired one, is obliged to give the coachman something to drink.

The *German theatre* is open the whole of the year, and tragedies, comedies, and operas, are alternately performed †. This theatre is rather large, with three rows of boxes, unornamented, and without any pretensions to architecture. The price of the boxes is two marks, and that of the pit one. Here you are at liberty to sit, or to stand, and most people keep on their hats. The dresses and decorations are particularly mean, and there is

* Sixteen-pence English.

† There is likewise sometimes a company of French comedians, who perform in a different theatre. This was the case in my last visit to Hamburgh, in 1806. The German theatre stands recluse behind the *Gänse Markt*; and the French one is in the *Dreyband*, near the *Damthor*.

no performance on Saturdays or Sundays. The street leading to the theatre is too narrow to admit of more than one carriage, and even foot passengers find it difficult to pass at the same time. When we visited Hamburgh in 1790, there was a very celebrated actor of the name of *Shræuder* (since dead) who had the reputation of being the *Garrick* of Germany; but our ignorance of the language made it impossible to judge of his merit.

The churches are not much worthy of notice*; *St. Michael's* is the handsomest; it is a new building, and is not too near the houses. The interior, in diameter two hundred and thirty-two feet, forms a kind of cross, the branches of which are nearly equal. It is surrounded by a large gallery. The baptismal font is in the centre of the nave; and a flight of steps conduct to a subterraneous church filled with tombs, amongst which are many family vaults. *Dr. Benzenberg* has lately made different experiments, and astronomical and physical observations, on the tower of this church: thirty-one of which are upon the rotation of the earth; twenty on the resistance of air against falling water; and four hundred and forty on the resistance of the same element against leaden balls of an inch and a half diameter falling from different heights of from ten to three hundred and forty feet, Paris measure. To ascertain the time employed in the fall with still greater precision, *Mr. Heyne*, who is always eager to promote all useful undertakings, sent to Hamburgh the chronometer which belongs to the observatory of Gottingen, and which ascertains the *tierce* or sixtieth part of a second†.

The tower of *St. Michael's* is three hundred and ninety feet high, and is particularly well calculated for experiments of this

* See Appendix, No. iv.

† The French call it *pendule à tierces*.

the architect *Pouin* having constructed it in such a manner as to leave an opening on every story, which reaches from the top to the bottom in a perpendicular line; by which means the leaden balls fall without being impeded in their passage. The elevation for these experiments is more considerable by an hundred feet than at Bologna, where *Riccioli*, two hundred, and *Gugliemini*, ten years since, made the like experiments. Sir Isaac Newton also made experiments on the resistance of air, near a century ago, in St. Paul's, in London, where, however, the elevation is eighty-five feet less than at St. Michael's at Hamburg.

The society of Hamburg consists principally of merchants, there being scarcely six noble families in the city. In the year 1790 the Comtesse de Beinthem received company almost every day, but gave no suppers. A formal invitation was necessary to be admitted to these assemblies, which appeared to us rather extraordinary*. The merchants' houses are extremely pleasant; they live very expensively, and their tables are served in a style of elegance rarely to be met with in any other city. They give a variety of foreign wines, and have fresh grapes from Malaga in their deserts at all seasons of the year. Their houses are particularly neat, and the profusion of wax lights greater than we ever remarked in any other country. After dinner, and supper, a mark is given to the servant who attends at the door: this is also the custom in some towns in Holland, and in the French colony at Berlin; but is not the case in the noblemen's houses in Hamburg, where, however, card-money is taken, which is not allowed at the merchants.

* Madame de Beinthem (now dead) had a very fine collection of medals, the catalogue of which was printed: she was, however, frequently deceived in her purchases, many of the medals not being genuine.

The exchange is a very poor building, in a small kind of square, shaded by a few trees: the whole is much too confined for the great concourse of people who frequent it, from two to half past three in the afternoon, particularly on post days. The Jews are very numerous, and do a great deal of business*. There is a library in this place, termed a commercial one, which, in 1790, contained only about three thousand volumes, none of which were either scarce or valuable; but within a few years it has made some very important acquisitions, consisting not only of a collection of French authors purchased by the voluntary subscription of several merchants, but of a great addition to the cabinet of medals, which makes part of this library; these belonged to the heir of Mr. *Amsink*, and were bought by a society of merchants, who opened a subscription for that purpose. The collection consists of a numerous series of *Hamburgh* coins.

The burgomaster *Charles Widow* has contributed very much to the improvement of this library, especially whilst he had the office of first inspector of the different schools, having purchased a great number of works of natural history and medicine at the sale of a learned physician.

An unknown patron has also presented it with a complete collection of the works of all the old physicians: indeed, there are very few libraries so rich in medical books as that at *Hamburgh*; and it is to be hoped they will soon be arranged in proper order. The present apartment being much too confined, senator *Cordes*, principal inspector of the schools, has formed a plan to enlarge it by the addition of some of the contiguous buildings. During the short time this gentleman has enjoyed the post of inspector,

* There are some Jews who make fifteen thousand pounds per annum, by being only paid one per thousand for business transacted.

the *Journal des Savants* from its first commencement, a great collection of historical works, and the best classical Greek authors, have been added to the library. The minister *Henry Jules Witterding* has prevailed on the ecclesiastical college of St. Peter's church to present it with sixty antient manuscripts, and some first impressions, which were formerly carefully preserved in the said church.

Merchants, however rich, attend the exchange in all weathers, and are dressed in the plainest manner. Though numbers of these merchants are in easy circumstances, and some of them rich, there are but very few amongst them with those overgrown fortunes, dignified in France by the title of *millionnaires* *.

The senate consists of thirty-four members, viz. four burgomasters †, (three of whom are civilians and graduates, with one merchant) four syndics, all civilians; a secretary and a prothonotary, likewise lawyers; twenty-four senators, twelve of whom are merchants, and twelve civilians. The senators are for life, and no one can refuse to serve the office under pain of being banished the city within twenty-four hours. The same penalty is in force for all other public offices. The senate assemble three times a week, in a large plain room, on the ground-floor of the town-hall, which is a very poor building, with some heavy, ill-executed ornaments on the outside: it is situated near the exchange, and the first floor is dedicated to the different offices for the excise on corn, wine, cattle, &c. The receivers are perfectly independent, and subject to no account whatsoever, which makes it impossible to know the exact revenue of the city. It

* Since the French revolution, however, the number is greatly augmented.

† Burgomasters and syndics are styled *Magnificence*. The senators who are civilians, *Hochweisheit*. The merchants, *Wohlweisheit*. The first burgomaster has yearly 6000 marks.

is said, that the citizens, and even the senate, are equally uninformed, which appears a most extraordinary circumstance. It is also difficult to ascertain the amount of the import duties; they are however, in general, extremely moderate, though they are not equal for all countries, France having enjoyed particular privileges ever since the treaty of 1769. The following statement* of the taxes and duties paid by the city and territories of Hamburgh in 1782, will prove how very unequal they were, and how uncertain the amount of the receipt.

The taxes levied, and the duties received, in the city and state of Hamburgh, are nearly the same as those of Bremen and Lubeck, and directed by the same principles. The people are not very numerous, and their zeal for their country resembles that of a father for his children; each individual consents with pleasure, and is eager to pay taxes and duties, which are universally acknowledged to be both useful and necessary: it is even thought shameful to be tardy in the payment.

Such conduct may give reason to believe that the people have some share in the administration, or at least that they are acquainted with the springs on which it moves; yet this administration is only confided to very few citizens, and no one is informed either of their views or operations; by this means they meet with no obstacles to their plans, nor suffer from the hatred or jealousy of their fellow-citizens.

The different *duties* shall be first taken into consideration, after which every thing relative to *taxes* shall be mentioned.

There are two kinds of *duties* received at Hamburgh—*general* or *commercial duties*, and *particular duties*.

General duties are those received at the custom-house on all

* See Dictionnaire Universel de Robinet, tom. 21. See also the Appendix, No. v.

merchandises imported and exported by sea and land, except privileged ones, such as grain and metals. These duties are collected in five different custom-houses, viz. those belonging to the *senate*, to the *citizens*, to the *admiralty*, the one termed *Schaumbourg* (no longer existing), and, finally, that for the excise upon wine, meat, and beer.

Merchandises are taxed, some according to their value, and others by the bale, hogshead, and barrel: the duties are rated in a general tarif, which is kept secret; and they are more or less considerable, according to the countries from which the merchandise is brought.

The duties on French and English goods amount to $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., and on the American, Spanish, and Portuguese, $2\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.

A tun of brandy is taxed six marks, a hogshead of wine one mark, a hamper, containing from sixty to eighty bottles, half a mark, or eight-pence English.

There is still another custom-house at Hamburgh, for the purpose alone of receiving the duty on grain ground in mills belonging to the republic.

Particular duties consist of several different kinds. The first are those on all *posts* and *offices*. The commission instituted for the sale of the said posts and offices is composed of two senators and two citizens, who receive the money paid on the occasion, and place it in the exchequer. There is no fixed price for these posts; it varies according to circumstances.

The duty upon shops and butchers' stalls is very productive; some of the former are let for fifty crowns a-year (a Hamburgh crown is about four and six-pence). The commission appointed for keeping the squares and streets in proper order, let out these

stalls and shops, receive the rents, and place the money in the exchequer.

The duty paid by the Jews residing in Hamburgh who carry on any kind of trade, is called the *duty of protection*, and brings in annually six thousand crowns ; which is very moderate, considering the number of Jews at present in that city. This duty is of very antient date, and has never varied since it was first imposed.

The antients of the synagogue regulate the sum to be paid by each family, which is given into the hands of two amongst them appointed to receive it, and, when it is completed, they carry it to the exchequer at the proper time.

There are also freemen's, port, and rope-yard duties.

The freemen's duty consists in a sum paid annually to the exchequer, and the patron senator, by all companies and communities, for the maintainance of their privileges.

Port and anchorage duties are paid into the admiralty, which has an office for that purpose. The proprietor or commissioner of every vessel must declare at the custom-house the value of his cargo, and the place from whence he comes, and is taxed accordingly.

The rope-yard duties consist in the sums produced by the sale of ground intended for *rope-walks*; each *walk* costs two thousand marks. The rope-makers are obliged to tar their ropes at the admiralty's storehouse, and to pay so much a quintal.

The product of all fines and confiscations is received by an officer appointed for that purpose, and deposited in the exchequer, which disposes of it at pleasure.

Every citizen or inhabitant of Hamburgh, who quits the city to reside elsewhere, is obliged to pay the tenth part of his fortune ; except those indeed who are comprised in what is termed

the contract, that is, who give an annual sum to be exempted from this tax, and who are then only obliged to pay down at once the amount of the said annual sum.

The master of the mint is taxed so much a mark.

The right of citizenship at Hamburgh is personal, and does not extend to the children *, who are obliged to purchase it; and this is termed the duty on the freedom of citizens.

A foreigner, or Hamburgher who does not choose to buy this freedom, is obliged to enter into the *foreign contract*, and to give an annual sum for permission to carry on trade in the city: he likewise pays all duties and taxes to which other citizens are subject.

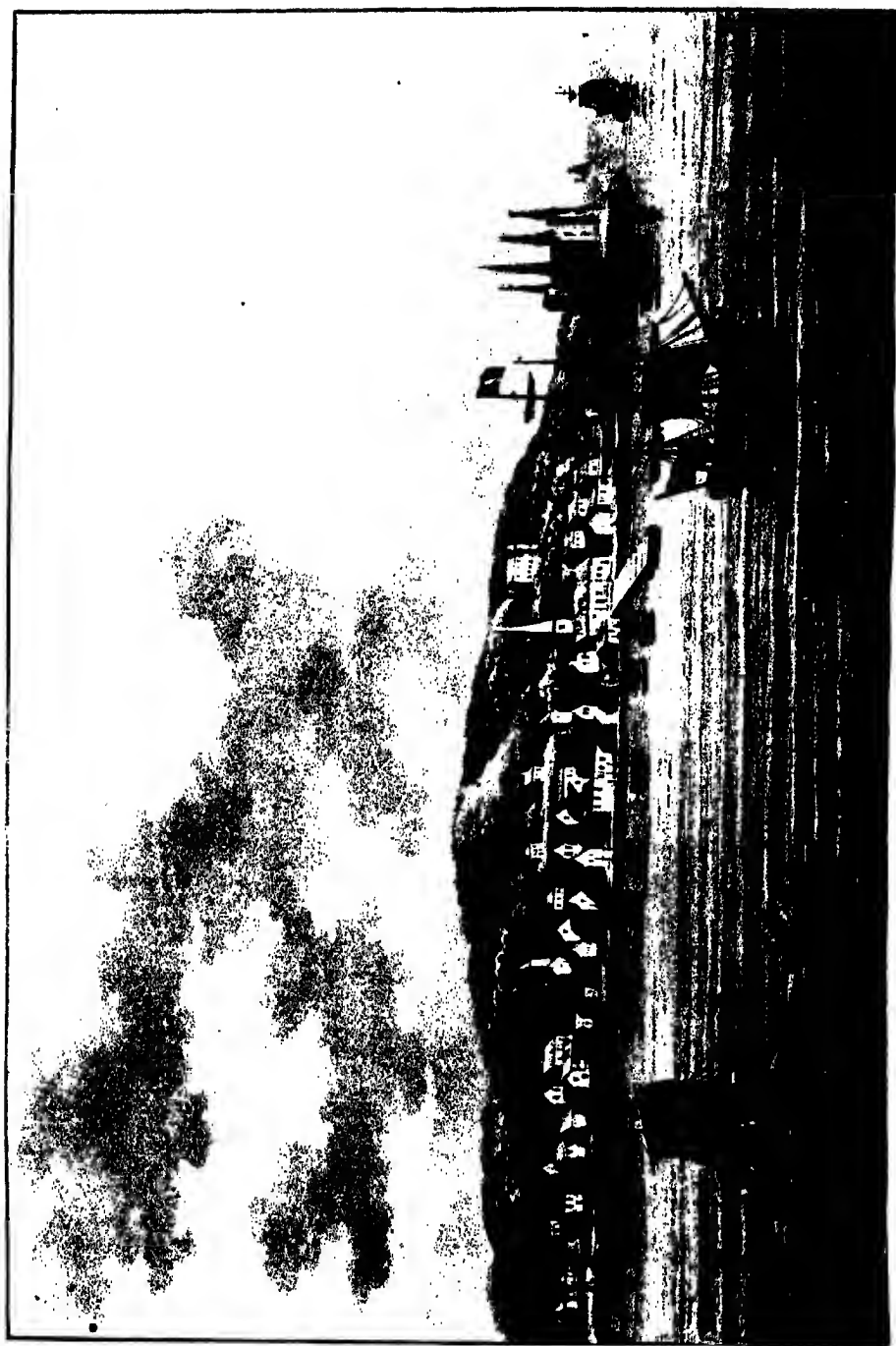
The city of Hamburgh has established a kind of public *pawn-brokerage*, where money is lent at six *per cent*. This is a great resource to the inhabitants, who save considerably by being taken out of the hands of the usurers, who, before this institution, frequently insisted on sixty, and even eighty *per cent*. If the articles are not taken out of pledge at the term agreed upon, they are immediately sold, but in such a manner as to bring their real value, and the remainder of the money is faithfully remitted to the owners of the pledges. The city is supposed to gain an annual sum of fifteen thousand crowns by this establishment.

The city cellar and the repository for drugs also yield a considerable revenue.

The former principally contains Rhenish wine of all ages, from a hundred years old † to the last vintage. This cellar is immense, and forms a subterraneous city, divided into different

* This right, however, does extend to those children who, when of age, take the oath of allegiance.

† There was indeed wine of the year 1648 when the French entered Hamburgh.



apartments, to which both foreigners and natives frequently resort, and give entertainments. There is a person appointed to superintend this commerce, who carries in his accounts to the commission, consisting of several members of the senate and exchequer.

The repository for drugs is also particularly well furnished, and contains every possible kind of medicine, which is infinitely better than at the apothecaries' shops; for which reason, the sale is very considerable, and the product great.

The customs on meal are farmed to the bakers, who pay annually eighteen thousand marks: every sack of corn, containing four measures, amounts to an hundred and seventy, or an hundred and seventy-five pounds, and pays a mark for the grinding duty*.

We will now proceed to the article of *Taxes*, which are divided into *ordinary* and *extraordinary*.

The *ordinary* taxes are the *income tax*, and what is paid for guarding, cleansing, and lighting the streets.

The income tax is one fourth *per cent.* paid by inhabitants of every description for all their estates, both real and personal. This tax is not assessed: every citizen rates for himself, and carries the amount to the town-hall, where he makes oath that the payment is just, according to law.

Every inhabitant is bound to mount guard, or to find a substitute. There are people on purpose to serve this office, and the captain of the quarter is obliged to provide them, being, however, furnished with means to support the expence by a sum

* Bread and meat are taxed from 15 to 25 per cent.; and beer pays in different ways more than 60 per cent.

paid him by every citizen. The nobility, ecclesiastics, and indeed all persons bearing titles, are exempted from this tax.

An annual sum is likewise paid by each inhabitant for cleansing and lighting the streets : the product of this rate is paid into the exchequer.

A register is kept of every house in the city, which also contains the name of the proprietor, the value of the house, and the rent it ought to bring in. The said proprietor is bound to pay a halfpenny for every mark he receives from his tenant, and this tax he himself carries to the town-hall at the stated time.

The *extraordinary* taxes consist, first, of a kind of poll-tax paid by all the inhabitants, except nobles, ecclesiastics, and titled persons. Those who contribute to this tax are divided into nine classes : the first pay six hundred marks. The wife is taxed half as much as her husband, and twice as much as her children.

The lower order of people, servants, nurses, and workmen, form the last class. Men are taxed one mark and six-pence, and women only six-pence. The captains of every quarter collect this tax, from the statement made of the persons resident in the said quarter.

Second—the *fortification ditch tax*, for keeping them in proper repair. This is at the cost of the city, and is more or less heavy according to the amount of the necessary expences. It is assessed and levied precisely in the same manner as the poll-tax.

Articles of consumption.—Hamburgh is supplied with vegetables and other provisions for daily use from the neighbouring villages, particularly from the district called the *Four Countries*. Veal comes from the bailiwick of *Winzen*, in Hanover, and a great quantity of poultry from the provostship of *Nculand*. The

territory of the *Four Countries* belongs equally to Hamburg and Lubeck, and each of these cities send a deputation of four senators every year to a small town named *Bergdorff*, to examine into the state of the country, police, &c. The consumption of coffee in Hamburg is surprisingly great, amounting annually to ten millions of pounds; indeed, the common people appear to live entirely on this liquor, and take it almost every hour in the day. Milk is carried about the streets in pails painted red, which they pretend to say is the only color which does not give it an unpleasant taste.

Smoked beef.—Oxen are brought from Holstein, Norway, and different parts of Denmark; Jutland especially furnishes great numbers. There are three different kinds of beef, which, in 1790, sold for the following prices:—common salt beef three halfpence English a pound; fresh beef three-pence; and smoked beef six-pence: the latter is excellent, but is principally consumed in the territory of Hamburg, except indeed in war time, when great quantities are exported for victualling the shipping. The common people salt their own beef, as do those who employ a great number of hands in manufactories, sugar bake-houses, and other establishments.

Literature and arts were at a very low ebb in 1790 at Hamburg; the greater part of the community applying themselves solely to commerce, there were very few towns where science of every kind was so totally neglected. It would, however, be unjust to assert, that Hamburg had never produced men worthy of being distinguished in the republic of letters, and I shall certainly not neglect mentioning some of the most celebrated in the Appendix, where a short account of their lives and different works will also be found. In 1790, there were neither good schools, sculptors, engravers, nor even a tolerable painter in the

city of Hamburgh. A French bookseller endeavoured to establish a reading-room, but he had so few subscribers, that he was forced to relinquish his plan. It was very extraordinary that all ideas of science should have been banished from so rich a city, and that French literature should have been so particularly in disrepute. All this, however, is now much changed, and there are great collections of French books, which have been considerably increased since the emigration, which has also contributed to make them sell speedily and well; consequently, French literature is both more cultivated and better understood*.

Inundations are extremely frequent and sudden in Hamburgh: the Elbe, indeed, is restrained by a dyke, but this, with the surrounding country, and almost the whole of the city, were overflowed in 1771: a pillar is erected to mark the height of the water, which was wonderful. Towards the end of November 1790, we were witnesses to the Elbe's rising more than twenty feet; the water deluged many cellars, and forced the inhabitants to quit their habitations. Whenever women with child, or sick persons; are obliged to leave these cellars at a minute's warning, those who lodge in the first, second, or third stories, are forced to grant them an asylum. This custom, though attended with inconvenience, is certainly a very humane one, as it enforces that assistance from the rich to which the poor have so just a claim. A sudden inundation, which took place on the night of the 21st of March 1791, did damage to the amount of many millions of French livres.

Environs.—There are very few cities which can boast of such beautiful environs, or that give a higher idea of the riches of the

* *French cookery* is of all other things the most esteemed in Hamburgh and Altona.

inhabitants. An assemblage of water, woods, groves, walks, with a variety of fine prospects, make Hamburg a delightful residence during summer. Almost all the merchants have expensive country-houses, which they visit as frequently as possible. Those without the Altona gate are in the Danish territory, and among the charming habitations which grace the banks of the Elbe, that of M. M. Boué was, in 1790, reckoned the pleasantest. Strangers should certainly visit the environs, especially on this side of the city, and towards the *Alster*. We made a short tour from Altona to Flotbeck; the road lies between rows of trees, and we were delighted with the charming gardens and pleasing country-houses, which presented themselves on every side. *Wandsbeck* is without the gate called *Steinthor*. It is a handsome *château*, and, though not large, is the finest in that neighbourhood: it belongs to the Comte de Schimmelman*, whose father amassed a considerable fortune in a short space of time in *Denmark*, where his brother was minister of finance in 1790. The park is pleasant, and, being open to the public, is the fashionable *promenade* on Sundays and holidays. The road, on these occasions, is crowded with open waggons, vehicles much used in this part of the world, with high wheels, and five or six benches across the carriage, which holds ten or twelve persons. Those belonging to people of fashion are hung upon springs.

From *Wandsbeck* we proceeded to *Billvardin*. In going thither we crossed the *Bille*, a narrow, but deep river, on the banks of which the houses are built in the Dutch style. One of them

* He married the daughter of Comte de Lowendal, a most amiable, accomplished, and learned woman, whom we frequently met, and from whom we never parted without regret.

belonged to M. de Chapeau Rouge, and is in a lovely situation, commanding a charming prospect. Baron Voght has also a delightful country-house a short distance beyond Altona, in the Danish territories. This gentleman has passed some time in England, where he visited the counties most noted for husbandry. He made agriculture his principal study, from which he reaped the greatest advantages on his return to his native country; and improved the soil of, and in the neighbourhood of his estate beyond his most sanguine expectations. His farming knowledge is equalled by his philanthropy, and he has attended so particularly to the hospitals, and other charitable institutions, that they are now upon a very different and infinitely better plan than when we visited them in 1790.

Mr. Parish's charming residence is in the same neighbourhood, close to the village called *Neunstiden*, six English miles and a half from Hamburg. Nothing can possibly be more picturesque than this elegant villa, situated on an eminence commanding the Elbe, and so near that river as to be able to hail the vessels passing and repassing. The variety and extent of the different points of view, are indeed so beautiful, that the proprietor, whose riches are equalled by his taste, was induced to fix upon this lovely spot for his favorite residence, and to build a handsome house where formerly stood a miserable cottage. This is surrounded by a domain extending two English miles, which, from being barren and neglected, is now excellently cultivated, cut out into different walks, and planted with a variety of beautiful trees, which already afford a delightful shade. The various embellishments which have taken place in the house and grounds during thirty-six years would be too tedious to particularise; I shall only say, that the stables, which were newly built, and cost

forty thousand marcs banco, were destroyed by lightning, but were immediately rebuilt at a still more considerable expence*.

The beauty and elegance of this spot are not more formed to attract the visits of a stranger, than the hospitality and politeness of the owner to engage him to remain there. The French, Dutch, Flemish, Swiss, Italian, and German emigrants, have been equally well received, and assisted in a very different manner from what they would have been elsewhere. Even Madame de la Fayette flew for protection and consolation to the American consul, poured out her griefs into his friendly bosom, and expressed the deep repentance of him who had been the original author of her misery †.

This benevolent man, so truly regretted by his neighbours, and so cruelly missed by the wandering stranger, is now returned to his native country, where his purse and hospitable mansion are ever open to the needy and unfortunate of every nation.

Dokenhude, a mile from *Nicustiden*, contains the country-houses of Messieurs C. and P. Godefroy ; that belonging to the latter is esteemed the finest country-house in the environs of Altona : the garden is laid out in the English style, and is open to the public.

The suburbs of Hamburg are said to be dangerous towards night, and there have been instances, between that city and Altona, of young men being pressed by the Dutch, carried forcibly on board a ship, and taken immediately to Batavia, whilst their

* The whole was consumed in two hours, and eleven horses perished in the flames.

† Madame de la Fayette quitted France when her husband was detained at Olmutz, and immediately proceeded to Mr. Parish, who was then American consul at Hamburg. This gentleman supplied her with the means of going to Vienna. The particulars of this affair are well known ; but, notwithstanding the assertions of certain French newspapers, Mons. de la Fayette was liberated in compliance with the request of the United States, and not in consideration of the French government.

friends remained for a long time ignorant of their unfortunate fate. These events, it is to be supposed, are very uncommon ; they ought, however, to be mentioned, to put people on their guard, and to prevent, if possible, such unlawful proceedings.

Hospitals, and all public institutions, were in a very neglected state in 1790. Trade so entirely absorbed every other idea, that the best and most useful plans were scarcely ever executed ; every thing, indeed, appeared entirely forgotten which did not relate to mercantile speculations*.

Pesthof is the name of an hospital very near the town, from whence a shady road leads to the chapel, which stands apart from the rest of the buildings, and has the form of a handsome rotunda. The hospital consists of several edifices, scarcely separated from each other ; these are of tile and wood, and the apartments are very dirty. The sick sleep two, and sometimes even three in a bed : men and women can hardly be said to be separated. The ceilings are not more than nine feet high ; and the beds nearly touch, which causes a most disagreeable smell, not a little increased by a quantity of chafing dishes, every patient being allowed to have one. This hospital contained nine hundred persons in November 1790, who were received on paying five guineas a-year. Separate rooms with stoves are appropriated to insane patients, who are comfortably lodged. Of these there were only nine at that time. The cells for the raving mad are in another building, and are twenty-four in number : they are cleaned but once a-week, and are almost always empty. The principal food in this hospital is a kind of gruel, made with milk and water, two pailsful of the former being boiled up in an

* Baron Voght's letter, already mentioned, will sufficiently prove the great difficulty he found in forming an establishment for the relief of the poor at Hamburgh.

immense kettle: the bread is bad, heavy, and sticks to the knife. The city is at the expence of this institution, which must be very considerable: the money is collected from the citizens, who are at liberty to subscribe whatever sum they think proper.

The house of correction stands on the banks of the bason formed by the Alster, and very near the public walk. In November 1790 it contained four hundred and fifty-four persons; and is capable of holding seven hundred, but they would then be obliged to sleep three in a bed. Men, women, and children, of the lowest classes, are indiscriminately admitted, and made to work for their maintenance. Some are sent thither for various offences, but none are confined for life. The food is the same as in the hospital, and they all eat together in a large and very dirty hall. Carpets, half a yard Hamburgh measure wide, are manufactured here, and sold for fifteen-pence English the three quarters of a yard. They also make cloth for the troops, which is not sold for any other purpose; carpets in the English style for two shillings and eleven-pence the three quarters of a yard; carpets made of pig's and cow's hair, which only cost four-pence the same measure, and are very convenient for smokers, not taking fire from a spark falling upon them. The produce from the industry of this house is not sufficient for the expenditure, which amounts annually to nearly thirteen hundred pounds more than the profits of the work.

No one can be admitted to see this institution without a ticket from one of the overseers. The office of an overseer is frequently very disagreeable, but cannot be refused without incurring the penalty mentioned in the article of senators. Those who behave ill in this house are confined in cells, where they are punished by a certain number of stripes from a leather strap, which are often inflicted in presence of the overseer for the time.

The pig's and cow's hair are spun by children, who generally become consumptive in less than a twelvemonth ; yet such is the poverty existing in Hamburgh, that hands are never wanting for this pernicious employment. The dust and flew from the hair form such an atmosphere, that it is impossible to remain even a few minutes in the apartment without coughing violently. Those employed in cutting and sawing Brazil wood are the greatest gainers ; the profit of the others is so trifling, that it is scarcely sufficient to keep them alive. No one should visit this institution without a provision of small money, plates and boxes being dispersed in different parts, into which it is customary to drop a trifle.

The *Foundling Hospital* is, without exception, the finest institution in Hamburgh ; indeed it is the only one neatly and properly kept. It is a brick building, with twenty-three windows in front. The entrance is by three great gates. The wings have each eleven windows in front, and six backwards : these communicate with each other by a covered and glazed gallery overlooking a canal. There were six hundred children in the hospital when we saw it : the boys were less in number than the girls. The former are taught reading, writing, accompts, and a little drawing ; the latter, reading, writing, spinning, plain work, and embroidery. The only defect in this institution is, that the children enjoy too many comforts, and are too well educated for the style of life they are forced to adopt upon quitting it. Most female servants are hired from this place, and the boys are employed in different manufactures. Their food consists of oat-meal-soup, cabbage, butter, cheese, and meat twice a week. The dormitories are very clean, and free from disagreeable smells. Each bed is furnished, according to the German fashion, with two feather-beds, one serving as a coverlid ; this is lined with :

sheet, which turns over, and forms a border round the bed. These children are educated, fed, and entirely maintained *gratis*: the city is at the whole expence, which is supported by voluntary contributions: this, indeed, is the case with every other institution of the same nature. The church is handsome, with an elegant marble baptismal font facing the altar. There is also a small picture of the *Lord's Supper*, painted and given to the charity by Madame *Déboar*. The expence of building this hospital amounted to 295,000 marks:

It is an extraordinary circumstance, that in a city where the poor amount to at least twelve thousand, there should be no beggars in the streets; but the government is very severe in this particular, all idle people being confined, and obliged to work for their subsistence. Paupers being more numerous in the winter months, it is necessary to send many of them into the neighbouring villages, where proper places are provided for their reception.

There is also an hospital for poor seamen, which, however, is but an indifferent institution. This is rather extraordinary in a city where at least three-quarters of the inhabitants are brought up either to trade or to the sea-service. Government would do well to attend to an object of such great importance. — An hospital for lying-in women is also wanting, or at least was so in 1790; and we have never heard that this deficiency has been since supplied.

Consumptions, and other affections of the lungs, are the most prevalent distempers in Hamburgh, owing, most probably, to the damp produced by such a quantity of water.

Hamburgh is not very conspicuous for manufactures, as the following statement will plainly evince. Very few printed linens are now manufactured here, owing to the enormous wages ex-

acted by the workmen. Velvets are in the same predicament; and indeed the country cannot boast of a single branch of industry peculiar to itself. Mr. *Kruger*, however, still has a manufactory for colored linens deserving notice, though there is nothing novel nor particularly curious in the machines; the colors being simply applied with a wooden instrument with brass points, which forms the pattern. The apartment for drying the linen is heated to so violent a degree, that the workmen are very short lived. There was only one man at work at the time we were there, who earned a guinea and a half a-week, which are the usual wages of a master workman. Those employed in the other parts of the process gained only seven or eight shillings. There are seventy-two printing-boards, and two coppers for the colors in this manufactory. Cow's dung is made use of in mixing colors, and some pieces of linen pass through fifty hands before they are entirely completed. We saw about fifty women putting on the colors with pencil brushes, which is much the most durable method, as it does not suffer from washing: these women do not earn more than a crown a-week. The patterns are made in the house, and are simply traced on wood, into which they drive the above mentioned brass points. These linens are of various prices, and are sold from six-pence to a crown an *Hamburgh ell* (three-quarters of a yard). They are purchased principally by the inhabitants; many, however, are sent to Turkey, and still more to Poland.

Mr. *Von Dohrien's* sugar bakehouse employs three large coppers, each containing 2500 pounds' weight. A large quantity of ox's blood is used in the first operation of clarifying the sugar, which must remain twelve hours in the vessel before it is taken out, when it is put into earthen vessels of a conical form. These are pierced through, that the sugar may

run out, and pitchers are placed underneath to receive the syrup from the sugar-loaf. This syrup requires six weeks to dry it thoroughly, and it is covered over with a layer of glazed earth, nearly two inches thick, which sometimes comes from *England*, but oftener from *Rouen*. The syrup has a great sale in the *Baltic*: it costs about three-halfpence a vessel on the spot, and the carriage is very trifling. There are only twelve workmen employed here, who bake five times a-week: the master earns forty-five pounds per annum, and the others from twelve to thirteen. The superfine sugar-loaves, termed *christening*, and *burying* loaves, weigh twelve pounds, and cost thirteen-pence a-pound. Sixty thousand loaves of the same weight, five thousand of sixty pounds, and ten thousand of ten, are annually made in this bake-house. There is a still more considerable one in *Hamburg*, and about two hundred and seventy others of different sizes. This branch of commerce is diminished since the King of *Prussia* has introduced bakehouses into his dominions: the *Hamburgers*, however, still furnish the *Baltic* with this article, on account of their vicinity. There are likewise a few small breweries; and in these consist all the industry of *Hamburg*.

A treaty existed between *France* and *Prussia* for supplying the ports of *Brest* and *l'Orient* with timber for ship-building. The last treaty was made in 1788, for four years, consequently ceased in 1791, when an officer, who acted as overseer for the French government, was charged to renew it. *Prussia* was to furnish at least sixty-five thousand cubic feet of timber, at the following prices: — From 40 to 60 feet long, and 15 inches high, 2s. 9d. (English money) a foot; from 30 to 40 feet by 12 inches, 2s. 3½d.; from 25 to 30 feet by 10 or 11 inches, 2s. Shingles of the first quality, of 15 feet by 15 inches, 2s. 8d. the foot; second quality, 12 feet by 12 inches, 2s. 1d. a foot: third quality,

9 feet by 12 inches, 1s. 3d. Crooks of 8 feet long by 13 inches, 3s. 1½d. the foot; smaller ones, 1s. 8d. Government made a demand in 1790 of two hundred and four thousand cubic feet, and another in 1791 of two hundred and eighteen thousand. The wood being brought to the overseer, he had a right to examine it, and to reject what did not appear good: the Prussian ministry were not suffered to dispose of a single piece without such an examination. The overseer lived at Hamburgh: his pay was a guinea a day, and he had two men under him. It appears very astonishing, that Prussia, having been long leagued with England, should not have deprived France of such an advantageous branch of commerce, before the state of political affairs obliged them to break off this treaty*.

* This treaty has been since renewed; but, when the French entered Hamburgh, the wood ready to be sent by Prussia to France was sequestered, and afterwards sold. This appears very extraordinary, the French government being certainly not so overstocked with timber for ship-building as to make the wood in question unnecessary.

CHAP. V.

Commerce of Hamburgh. — Number of Hamburgh Vessels in 1790 — Account of the Hamburgh Bank. — Money. — Weights and Measures.

IT is impossible to ascertain the exact balance of the commerce of Hamburgh; we can only say, that it was immense, being the staple for all the merchandizes sent to the north of Europe. Thirty-six thousand hogsheads of sugar were imported every year. St. Domingo, at that time, furnished eighteen hundred pounds' weight; Martinico fourteen hundred; and Bourdeaux alone sent in more than a quarter of the whole. The price of refined sugar, of the first quality, in 1790, was ninepence halfpenny a pound; an inferior sort sevenpence; and the common sixpence.

The provision for corn destined for France, whether for the king or for individuals, consisted, in 1790, of fifty cargoes, of about four hundred tons one with another, which ton cost seventeen pounds six shillings. Mon. de Chapeau-Rouge supplied the French government with corn to the value of one hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds sterling; and Mr. Voght, the municipality of Paris to the amount of one hundred and forty-five thousand eight hundred and thirty-three pounds

six shillings and eightpence. This provision, extraordinary as it was, did not make any sensible difference in the whole of the commerce of 1790, which was regarded as a common year.

The city of Hamburgh has no production peculiar to itself to send to other countries. The articles of exportation consist of timber, wool, lead, hemp, grain, and wheat, all of which come from Prussia, Mecklenburgh, and Hanover. The Hamburghers are so extremely secret in every thing relative to this branch of their commerce, that it is impossible to form a just judgement of the profits. The French consuls resident in this city ever since the year 1743 have employed every method to penetrate the mystery, but without success. It is still more extraordinary that no one can possibly divine the cause of such profound secrecy.

The number of vessels which entered the port in a common year* might be computed at twelve or thirteen hundred, and those which went out at seven, eight, or nine hundred. The Hamburgh vessels in November 1790 amounted to two hundred and seventy-three, from 150 to 700 tons. There were also thirty-two employed in the whale fishery, carrying from 6 to 800 tons.

The tide rises from 8 to 9 feet at the new and full moon. Flat-bottomed vessels of 600 tons can take in the whole of their lading in the harbour, while those with sharp keels, though only of 300 tons, are obliged to go to Twickenflench to take in some part, nay, even half of their cargo, which is transported thither in tenders

* During the last war, the number of decked vessels that entered the port yearly, was about 2,148, besides a great many small craft, constantly trading from the coast of Westphalia, Holland, &c.

built for that purpose. The principal commerce of Hamburgh consists in commission matters of speculation and exchange business.

The different articles which constituted the importation trade of Hamburgh, and the countries which supplied it with the said articles, shall be the subject of a future chapter.

I shall now proceed to describe the state of the Hamburgh bank, and the manner of negotiating bills; but I refer to the appendix for the easiest method of making a just estimate of the different course of exchange, and shall conclude this chapter, by some particulars relative to, and observations on the weights and measures most in use at Hamburgh.

The Hamburgh bank was founded in 1619, and though the funds were not so considerable as in the bank at Amsterdam, it was managed with such exactness and integrity, that it was in great repute throughout the whole of Europe, and still more particularly in the northern countries.

As some of my readers may, perhaps, wish to be acquainted with it's origin, and the manner in which it is regulated, I shall transcribe the following account given me by an Englishman, who for fifty years was at the head of one of the most considerable commercial houses on the continent.

A cursory Sketch of the Bank of Hamburgh.—"The primary cause for the institution of this bank, in 1619, was the debased state of the circulating coins in the surrounding states, which were becoming more debased from year to year: while Hamburgh maintained it's established standard, and it's money was finding it's way out of the city into other states, in exchange for their adulterated coin, and to the ruin of the inhabitants.

"From the 12th century, Hamburgh had the right of coining it's own money, and soon afterwards agreed with Lubeck, and

latterly with Luneburg and Wismar on a fixed standard for their coins.

“The surrounding states of Germany still kept issuing their base metal, which was growing worse from day to day ; and from 1520 to 1530, their circulating coins, by the mixture of alloy, had nearly lost one-half of their representative value.

“This traffic, so ruinous to Hamburgh and the other Hanscatic towns, which by their connexion were obliged to maintain their superior standard, made them resolve to strike at the root of so ruinous and growing an evil ; and in 1566, a general coin for the German empire was agreed on ; according to which, nine specie rix-dollars were to be coined out of the mark of fine silver, at the standard of fourteen loths and four grains : a mark of silver is sixteen loths and eight ounces, eighteen grains being a loth ; so that this standard of fourteen loths, four grains of pure silver, has one loth fourteen grains of alloy to make up the sixteen loths in the mark fine.”

This measure for the time corrected the whole of the abuse ; and in order to prevent, as far as lay in their power, a recurrence of such palpable fraud as that of imposing false and debased coin on the community, our ancestors digested the plan of a bank ; into which, nothing should be introduced but the constitutional coin or the specie dollar, nine of which, when coined, were to represent a mark of fine silver. This specie money, when deposited in the bank, represented the circulating medium of Hamburgh ; and the merchants, in order to save the trouble of paying and receiving their money, had accounts opened in bank ; and the sums to be paid or received, were transferred from one account, while the sums deposited were allowed to remain untouched in the strong vaults of the bank.

This transfer is made by a check on the bank, which, how-

ever, the merchant must carry himself (or one holding his full power for the purpose) to the bank, and deliver it to the clerk. This payment cannot be made use of by the receiver until the next day, when it is properly entered on his account.

When I say that the money thus deposited, or what may be called the fund or capital of the bank, remained untouched in the vaults of the bank, I only mean it as a convenience for the merchant in saving him the trouble of counting out and, in his various payments and receipts; for the money or the capital itself standing on the account, each merchant can demand and receive every farthing standing on his account, any hour when he calls for it, Sundays and Holydays excepted.

Thus much, and so far, it is necessary for a stranger to know, in order to give him an idea of our bank; while the specie dollar continued to pass in it as the circulating medium. This was till 1769, when our bank was converted from a specie bank to a silver bank, and when fine silver became the circulating medium. The principal cause for this change was owing to the circumstance of our having lent to Denmark, much against our will, (on the peace of 1763, when Russia was about to deprive her of Holstein,) one million of specie dollars. A part of this sum was afterwards repaid in specie dollars, which Denmark coined; and which were afterwards found to be worth only $46\frac{1}{2}$ stivers, instead of 48 stivers. This debased coin having found it's way into our bank, soon began to show it's effects; and not wishing to quarrel with our powerful neighbour, the old constitution of our specie bank was abandoned, and a new one instituted, by which no more specie was to be received at the bank, which was now opened to receive only silver cleared of it's alloy; and the whole of the specie dollars remaining in the bank were melted

down into pure silver, and the mark fine established at 27 marks 10 schellings for any sum deposited; and 27*m.* 12*sch.* on it's again being paid out. The same rules are observed with the silver bank in point of transfer, that were adopted when the specie dollar was the medium; and every merchant may also demand, and will receive, his silver back again, which he has standing on his account, at the rate of 27*m.* 12*sch.* per mark silver fine.

The manner of regulating the bank is as follows:—The corporation and burgesses are, in fact, securities for it; since the senate does not interfere in the business.

The directors are six in number, and are elected, by the majority of votes, from among the principal citizens.

These directors take care that all the regulations of the bank shall be strictly observed; they also supply the cashiers with money when payments are to be made.

The original stock in this treasury is supposed to be very great; but the book-keepers having made oath, neither to divulge what sums have been received into, or paid out of the bank, nor what money has been placed there by individuals, it is impossible to ascertain the amount; it is equally impossible for creditors to seize the property of their debtors so placed, since by this oath of secrecy they are kept entirely ignorant of the state of their finances.

The book-keepers are obliged to carry in a balance account of the bank every week to the comptrollers.

The burgesses in the city are alone permitted to have an account in bank, or to place money there as a deposit without interest; and it is these bank bills which enable them to pay their letters of exchange, and even to purchase different kinds of merchandise, by making a transfer by a check of the said bills.

No one can be entered in the bank for less than a hundred marks lubs. Two sols lubs are paid for all sums under three hundred marks, whilst larger sums are inscribed gratis.

The inscriptions are made in the bank from seven in the morning till ten, and from three in the afternoon till five. Those whose accounts bear interest may also inform themselves whether they have been inscribed at the above-mentioned hours. This may indeed be done from ten in the morning till one in the afternoon, by paying two sols lubs to the book-keeper. The Jews are obliged to make their payments before eleven o'clock, otherwise they must pay two sols lubs each note, and also two more sols lubs for all sums under four hundred marks.

When a merchant begins to have an account in bank, it costs him fifty rixdollars of three marks value, or forty-eight sols lubs to the rixdollar.

The bank is shut up every year on the last day of December, and opened again on the 15th of January.

Before the year 1769, the specie usually paid into this bank consisted of rixdollars, pieces of half, quarter, and eighth of a rixdollar, which were generally worth an eighth, quarter, and even half per cent. more than bank bills; that is to say, if any one wanted rixdollars in specie, it was necessary to inscribe in the bank an eighth, quarter, or even half per cent. over and above the sum received; whilst, on the contrary, if specie was placed in the bank, a profit was allowed of an eighth, and sometimes a quarter per cent.

The books, and all other writings of the bank, are kept in marks, sols, and deniers lubs. It is necessary to observe, that fractions under the value of the sol, or six deniers, are not written.

The Hamburgh bank also lends money on pledges, at the

moderate interest of two per cent. per annum, on condition of paying the principal and interest at a specified time, in default of which the effects are sold at the entrance of the bank to the highest and last bidder. But this is not done till bills have been publicly posted up, intimating the day of the sale. The bank seldom lends money on any thing but silver, tin, copper, and Spanish dollars. The interest resulting from these loans, with the sols lubs for transfers, are sufficient to defray all the expences of the bank, the directors of which, differing from those throughout the rest of Europe, receive no salary for their trouble. One of these directors is changed every year, and another chosen in a general assembly of the citizens of Hamburgh.

Observations on Bills of Exchange

If a bill be not paid at it's time, the person is amenable to the proctors, who can arrest his property or his person for the amount.

A verbal promise to accept a bill is the same as if it were subscribed for. A bill at sight, not accepted on presentation, but some days after, reckons from the day it was presented.

A person receiving a bill to accept, and returning it on demand unaccepted, is deemed an acceptor.

Acceptance being refused, a bill may be presented any time within three days, but not on Sundays, holidays, or after sunset.

A bill on a Jew must not be presented on a Sabbath or holiday; but, if drawn at sight, the acceptance must be dated on the day of it's arrival.

* See the Picture of Hamburgh, p. 133.

A bill drawn at a certain number of days, and arriving after time, no more days of grace are allowed than if it had arrived in due time.

Bills becoming due before the close of the year, must be paid before the bank is shut, without the days of grace being allowed. Such as fall due on the first, second, or third of January, and are not paid on the third day of opening, must be protested.

If a bill be not protested before the eleven days' grace are expired, the holder loses his claim on the drawer and indorser, and can only have recourse to the acceptor.

Should the acceptor of a bill become bankrupt in the interval of payment, it must be protested immediately; and application must be made to the drawer and indorser, who must pay the same with cost and interest.

HAMBURGH COINS.	Value in the Country.		Standard.		Weight, Standard, and Tale of Gold and Silver.	
	Marks	lubs.	Carats.	Grains.		
GOLD COINS.					A mark of pure silver in bars is worth about 28 marks banco.	
New portugalæser - - -	60				Wrought silver is at the standard of 12 loths and 3 grains, or nine deniers three grains. The mark of the assay is three towers.	
Half portugalæser - - -	30					
Quarter of portugalæser - - -	15	23	6			
Double ducat - - - - -	12					
Ducat - - - - -	6				The ducat, according to the Paris assay, weighs 66 grains, at the standard of 23 carats $\frac{1}{2}$.	
SILVER COIN, BILLON * AND COPPER.						
Flemish pound - - - -	1					
Rixdollar is worth - - -	2	10	16			
Rixdollar current - - -	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	1			
Dollar, daelder dulle exchange crown.	3 $\frac{1}{2}$					
Mark lubs - - - - -	7	9				
Escalin, sous gros - - -	20					
Schillinge lubs or Sous lubs - -	120					
Sechslinge denier gros - - -	240					
Dreylinge - - - - -	480					
Pfenning lubs, denier lubs - - -	1440					

Silver money is coined at the standard of fourteen loths: old pieces of silver, coined in 1506, were at the standard of something more than ten deniers.

The rixdollar, according to the Paris assay, weighs 549 grains, the standard of 10 deniers 14 grains. The Hamburg double mark of 32 sous lubs, coined in 1726, was at the standard of 9 deniers: pieces of 32 and 16 sch. are at the standard of 12 loths, the first at the tale of 17, and the second at the tale of 34 to the mark of pure silver. Pieces of eight, at the standard of 10 loths, at the tale of 68 to the mark of pure silver: pieces of four at the

* Brass money alloyed with a little silver.

standard of 9 loths, at the tale of 126 to the mark : pieces of two schellings at the standard of 4 loths ; of one sch. at the standard of 6 loths ; those of six deniers at the standard of 4 loths ; and of three deniers at the standard of 3 loths.

Sixty-seven ducats are coined from a mark of pure gold, and eight rixdollars specie from a mark of pure silver.

Impressions.

The Portugalæzers are stamped on one side with two tables : the one covered with a carpet, on which is a desk, a book, and an ink-stand ; on the other a small pair of scales, with this legend : *Lege perpetua stabilitum*. On the reverse, a counting board, on which is a pair of scales, with a silver beam, in the centre of four small medallions, with the following legend : *Argentum civibus servatum redditum*. The half portugalæzers are stamped on one side with a view of the city of Hamburgh, and a German legend, beginning thus : *Verleich uns frieden*.

A ducat is stamped with a spread eagle, bearing the arms of the empire in the middle, and a sceptre and a sabre on each side. On the reverse the following legend : *Mon. aur. Hamburgensis ad legem imperii*.

A rix-dollar, or bank crown, and pieces of one and two marks current, are stamped with the arms of the empire on one side ; and on the other those of Hamburgh, with two lions supporters, and this legend : *Moneta nova Hamburgensis*.

Billon species are stamped in the same manner as the silver ones, with the addition of having the value marked upon them.

Pieces of one schelling, six, and three deniers, have likewise the arms of the city on one side, and the value marked on the reverse.

Observations.

There is very little gold coin of the country in circulation, but great quantities of Danish gold: notwithstanding the penalty is very severe for taking it out of the kingdom, the greater part is carried to Hamburgh. The Jews are principally concerned in this contraband commerce.

WEIGHTS and MEASURES used in HAMBURGH valued in ENGLISH.

				lb.	oz.	dr.
32 Loth	-	-	1 Pound	-	1	2½
14 lb. in commerce	-	-	1 Lispfund	-	15	3
16 lb. in carriage	-	-	1 Lispfund	-	17	2 5
20 Loth in com. or 280 l. in carr. 320			1 Schippund	-	300	3 2
112 lb.	-	-	1 Cintner or Quintal	-	120	0 8
10 lb. }	-	-	1 Stone	{ of Wool, Leather, &c.	11	11 7½
20 lb. }	-	-			21	6 15
				{ of Flax Hemp Cordage, &c.		

DRY MEASURE.

				Qrts.	Bush.	Pecks.
2 Kleine Maass	-	-	1 Grosses maass nearly	-	0	0 0½
4 Grosse Maass	-	-	1 Spint	-	0	0 0½
4 Spint	-	-	1 Himten	-	0	0 3½
2 Himten	-	-	1 Fass	-	0	1 2½
3 Fass	-	-	1 Scheffel	-	0	4 2½
10 Sheffels	-	-	1 Wispel	-	5	6 1½
2 Wispels	-	-	1 Last (of Coals)	{	11	4 3
3 ditto	-	-	1 Last of Wheat, Rye, &c.			
1½ Last	-	-	1 Stock of Barley	-	16	10 4½

The Last of Corn should weigh about 2 tons 11 cwt. 3 qrs. English.

LIQUID MEASURE.

				English. Gal. Qrts. Pint.
2 Oesels	-	-	1 Quartier	0 0 0½
2 Quartier	-	-	1 Kanne	0 0 1½
2 Kannen	-	-	1 Stuebgen	0 1 1

2 Stuebgen	-	-	1 Viertel	-	-	0 3 0
4 Viertels	-	-	1 Eimer	-	-	3 0 0
1½ Eimer	-	-	1 Anker	-	-	3 3 0
4 Anker	-	-	1 Ahm	-	-	15 0 0
6 Ahmen	-	-	1 Tuder or Ton	-	-	90 0 0

Note. A Barrel or Oxholf of brandy is 30 Viertels, or 22½ Gallons.

CLOTH MEASURE.

						English.
						Yds. Qtrs. Nails.
12 Zollen	-	-	1 Fuss nearly	-	-	0 1 1½
2 Fuss	-	-	1 Elle, rather more	-	-	0 2 3
1½ Elle	-	-	1 ditto Flem.	-	-	0 3 0
6 Elle Hamb.	-	-	5 ditto Flem.	-	-	3 3 0

LAND MEASURE.

						Yards. Qtrs. Nails.
Ellen	-	-	1 Ruth	-	-	4 1 0

120 Ruth in length, and 5 Ruthen in breadth, is a Morgen of land, or about 2½ acres, or 12,000 square English yards. A Ton of land in Holstein is about 2½ Morgens of Hamburg.

LONG MEASURE.

15 German Miles	-	-	1 Degree.
1 Degree	-	-	69½ Miles English,

which divided by 15, gives 4½, that is, 1 German Mile 4½ English.

CHAP. VI.

Blind Confidence of the Hamburgers in the Promises of the French not to violate their Neutrality.— Sketch of the History of Hamburg. — The Sovereignty of this City contested by the Kings of Denmark, and the Dukes of Holstein.— It's Independence acknowledged by all it's most dangerous Neighbours— It's Preservation very important on Account of it's Neutrality.

HAVING quitted Dresden only to avoid a scene of warfare, I had not the most distant idea of remaining at Hamburg.— The French resident in that city, his agents, and the friends of Bonaparté's government had, by means of promises, verbal, written, and printed, succeeded in inspiring the greatest confidence and lulling the inhabitants into a state of perfect security; so much so, indeed, that some of the richest, most respectable and best informed merchants declared that the French would never come to disturb the peace of Hamburg; but, on the contrary, would respect their territories much more scrupulously than the Prussians. This induced me to ask some of them, whether their storehouses were not filled with commodities of every kind? whether they had not a great stock of English merchandise? and whether their coffers, both public and private, were not overflowing with gold and silver? To all these questions they answered in the affirmative.

—I could not then refrain from asking them if they did not believe the French would be tempted to empty their storehouses, to scise their English merchandise, to drain their bank, and, in short, to act towards them as they had done towards every other country through which they had passed? For what reason, added I, have you to think they are become more scrupulous, or less greedy *? Nothing, however, that I could say on the subject had any effect; they were deaf to all reasoning which tended to depreciate the faith of the great nation, and answered every argument I employed, either with a smile of disbelief, or a shrug of disapprobation.

Justice is due to those puffers and their friends, who must possess great talents, and a superior degree of cunning, thus to blind a commercial nation, ever alive to it's own interest; for even the most clearsighted among the Hamburgers, never had an idea that the French had **any** farther views than to levy a contribution, before they quitted the neighbourhood. Now, that both rich and poor, ignorant and informed, well and ill-disposed, friends and enemies, have equally suffered from the visit of the French, without being able as yet to calculate the extent of their loss; I will endeavour, if possible, to tear away the veil which the French, with unexampled audacity, had thrown over their understandings, and point out to them the misfortunes which await them†; but this cannot be done without calling to mind the former situation of Hamburgh, as an imperial city and Hanse town, with it's political and commercial relations before, and after the destruction of the Germanic empire.

Hamburg is well situated in a fertile and agreeable country,

* *Paucis carior fides quam pecunia fuit.* Sal.

† *O consuetudo pecundi quantum habes jucunditatem in improbis et audacibus!* Cicero.

on three rivers; the Elbe to the south, the Bille to the east, and the Alster to the north. Such an advantageous situation must from the remotest times, have induced different people to fix their abode in this spot, and build fortifications. I shall not, however, take any notice of the improbable and ungrounded assertions of some authors, who pretend that Hamburgh was either the *Augusta Gambviorum*, or *Gambrivia*, of the Latins*; or the *Marionis* of the Greeks;† and that Jupiter Ammon was adored there.‡; but simply trace it's origin to more recent times, and to a period more generally known.

Charlemagne, in the year 808, gave orders to his lieutenant to build two forts upon the Elbe. The one which commanded the port, and which in process of time became the city of Hamburgh, was called *Odon*. || It was situated, in all probability, to the south of the cathedral,§ and in the same spot where the

* See Vaget (Joachim) page 256. *Dresbourg* (Matthieu) de Urb. German, page 304.

† See Cluvier German Ant. book 3, chap. 27, page 605. He is wrong to dispute with Ptolemy, and to say that such longitude and latitude does not agree with this conjecture. Marionis is no more Hamburgh, than Luneburgh, as it is said to be by Gerard Mercator.

‡ See Lambecius *Res. Hamb.*

|| Albert de Stade says, that the name of this ancient castle was *Hochbuchi*, or *Hochburi*. Lambecius observes that it had two names, one Saxon, and one Vandal, that the latter was written differently on ancient monuments, where it is called, *Haobhuochi*, *Hobbauch*, *Hochbuch*, *Bochburi*, *Buchburi*, *Buchborg*, and *Buchborch*. He makes it appear that the towns in these cantons had also two names, and mentions those of *Schleswig*, *Aldembourg*, and some others. The syllable *Buch* is derived from *Bog* or *Buk*, which signifies God; the first in Polish, and the second in Bohemian. This agrees with what is said by the author of the preface to the ancient civil law of Hamburgh, who asserts that this city was called the City of God, in the Vandal language. From thence, this author imagines that Jupiter Ammon was worshiped there, as if it were possible such a divinity should be adored in a city founded by a christian prince. Besides Jupiter Ammon was unknown to the inhabitants of the north.

On New-year's-day, 1800, at noon, in commemoration that the city had existed one thousand years, three rounds of a hundred cannons were fired on the rampart.

§ See Lambecius.

Archbishop Bezoln, towards the end of the year 1036, erected a palace defended by towers and bastions. The emperor began by placing a garrison in the above-mentioned fort, composed of a company of eastern Saxons ; but in the year 810*, the *Wilses*, a people among the Slavi, took this fort and razed it to the ground. It was rebuilt the following year by Charlemagne†. He also built a church in the same place, in honor of Jesus Christ, and the holy Virgin Mary‡, which was consecrated by Amalarius, a French prelate, who returned immediately afterwards to Treves, and was not the first bishop of Hamburgh, as is asserted by Bertius. The service of this church was performed by Heridag, who, notwithstanding the assertion of Pontanus, was not the second bishop; though certainly Charlemagne meant to consecrate him archbishop of Hamburgh: but this consecration never taking place, Louis le Débonnaire, named St. Anschaire to that see; he was consequently the first bishop and archbishop of Hamburgh.

Heridag, who officiated in this church, scarcely lived two years after his appointment, and died at the latest in 813. The consecration of St. Anschaire did not take place till 831. The two following years, Louis le Débonnaire was entirely occupied by

* See Eghinard Ad. An. 810.

† See Alberstad Chron. the same year.

‡ Bertius (Rer. Germ. book 3), and Pontanus (Dan. Chorogr. Descr. page 666), says that this church was at first dedicated to Saint Peter; but this error is contradicted by all the ancient monuments. This author is guilty of another mistake, when he declares Amalarius Fortunat to be the first bishop of Hamburgh, and Heridag to be the second. Louis le Débonnaire, the son and successor of Charlemagne, declares the contrary in the diploma of the foundation of the bishoprick of Hamburg. He makes use of the following terms:—"Our late father Charles, &c. of glorious memory, intending to found an episcopal see here (at Hamburgh) beyond the Elbe, in order to prevent any of the neighbouring bishops laying claim to the diocess, sent into Gaul for a bishop named Amalarius, that the above-mentioned church should be first consecrated by him."

the rebellion of his children; but when he had recovered his liberty, and was repossessed of his empire, he confirmed the establishment of the archbishoprick by a diploma of the 15th of May, 834. This Act was dated at Aix la Chapelle, and some people have confounded it with the Act of foundation, which was made three years before. The same year St. Anschaire repaired to Rome, accompanied by two other bishops and a Count, the Emperor wishing to do him honor on the occasion. There he demanded of Pope Gregory IV. the confirmation of his see, who gave him the *pallium* or *pall*, and the title of Legate in all the northern countries.

A town was soon built in the environs of the fort, but it was far from being a considerable one in the year 845, when it was plundered by the Roman pirates, who took advantage of the absence of the governor, Comte Bernard, and, ascending the Elbe, surprised the inhabitants at the night, put them to the sword, and set fire to the town. St. Anschaire made his escape with great difficulty. Leo IV., the successor of Gregory, sent St. Anschaire a bulle in the year 849, by which he granted him the same privileges given him by Gregory; conferring on him the spiritual jurisdiction over all the northern countries, on condition of his converting them to the Christian faith. He particularly named the following people: Wimodii, Nordalbingi, Dani, Norweni, Sueni, &c. These inhabited a district of the country of Bremen, towards the Elbe: Holstein, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. Pope Nicholas the First, in 857, united the bishoprick of Bremen to that of Hamburgh, in favor of St. Anschaire, so that the dignity of metropolitan remained annexed to the latter archbishoprick. This was done with the consent of Gunthier, archbishop of Cologne, to which see that of Bremen was subordinate. Cornille mistakes, when he asserts that the see of Hamburgh was

transferred to Bremen. This act of Nicholas the First, was dated the 1st. of June, and shortly after, the Normans, having discontinued their piracies, began to rebuild **Hamburgh***. Whilst they were so employed, St. Anschaire went to **Denmark**, where he succeeded in converting numbers, particularly the king, **Eric**, the declared enemy of the Christian faith. From thence he passed into **Sweden**, and after having labored with such true zeal that he obtained the title of the **Apostle of the North**, he returned to Bremen, where he died in 865. He was by birth a Frenchman, and a monk of the Order of St. Benedict at **Corbie**, which he was commanded to quit, to accompany the colony sent to **New Corbie** or **Corwey**. He was succeeded by St. Rembert, likewise a Benedictine, who assisted him in all his apostolical labors, and who wrote the life of that holy prelate. I shall not pretend to enumerate the different archbishops who succeeded him at **Hamburgh**; but only remark, that the diocess having extended towards the north, the archbishops of **Cologne** pretended, that they had not entirely ceded their right to the bishoprick of Bremen, but only consented to the union in order to strengthen the see of **Hamburgh** for a certain time; but now that it was no longer in need of support, they demanded to be reinstated in all their privileges. **Adalgaire**, at that time archbishop of **Hamburgh**, lost this cause in the council held at **Tribur**, a royal palace on the other side of the **Rhine**, between **Oppenheim** and **Mâyence**, in 895. It was there decided that the see of Bremen held from that of **Cologne**; and this was confirmed by an Act of Pope **Formosus**: but in 911, Pope **Sergius III.** re-established the bishoprick of **Hamburgh** in all it's rights over Bremen. The Danes and Slavi plundered **Hamburgh** for the third time, about the

* **Helmoud**, Chron. l. i. c. 5.

year 915. The city was again rebuilt, and the Othos granted it great privileges. In 948, Otho the Great made an expedition into Denmark, where he founded the three following bishopricks, Schleswig, Rypen, and Aarhus, all of which were subject to the see of Hamburg. Baronius and Calvisius are mistaken when they say that this took place a year later. * Otho the Great went to Italy to put an end to the scandalous proceedings which dishonored the church of Rome. There he deposed Benedict V whom the Romans had elected Pope in the place of John XII. who had himself deposed Leo VIII. Otho re-established the latter, and Benedict being treated as an usurper, he confided him to the care of Adalgaþ VII., bishop of Hamburg, who had accompanied Otho to Italy, and who carried Benedict back with him to Hamburg, where he remained in exile. This prelate was learned and virtuous, and, according to the canons, perfectly worthy of the pontifical dignity; consequently, at the decease of Leo VIII. in 965, it was demanded that Benedict should be placed canonically in St. Peter's chair, but he died at Hamburg on the third of July following, as appears at this present time from the epitaph inscribed on his monument in the cathedral church of that city. Adam of Bremen dates his death on the 5th of July. His body remained in this church till the year 999, when Otho III. ordered it to be carried to Rome. The monument still exists in the choir.

The city of Hamburg became more and more considerable; and the archbishop, Urwan the Ninth, formed a chapter of twelve canons, which subsists at present*; but the Lutheran religion being the established one, married men are now admitted

* Some alterations, however, were made in 1802, which the succeeding events make it unnecessary to relate.

into this community. Some years before (in 1012) Mistiwoy, and Mizzudrag, Vandal princes, who, having embraced the Christian faith, were harshly treated by Bernard, who commanded for the emperor in those parts, abjured Christianity, took up arms, and taking advantage of Bernard's embarrassed situation, from having rebelled against the Emperor, Henry II., committed every kind of cruelty, particularly at Hamburgh, as being the Metropolitan church of Christianity. They razed the Church of our Lady to the ground; massacred the greatest part of the inhabitants, and made slaves of the remainder. The community of Benedictines, transferred by St. Anschaire from Corbie to Hamburgh, where they resided near the church in which they officiated, removed at that time to Rameslöc. This society of pious men had founded a school at Hamburgh, which served as a chapter to the cathedral. Archbishop Unwan afterwards supplied it's place by twelve canons.

Hamburgh being pillaged and destroyed for the fourth time, the Church of our Lady was rebuilt of wood; but Bezelin XII. archbishop, began to build it again of freestone. He also erected a palace with towers and bastions, and in all respects fortified like a citadel. This was situated to the south, near the Elbe, and greatly alarmed Bernard, Duke of Saxony, who, fearing that the archbishop should employ it to secure to himself a greater share of power in the city, immediately built another fortress to the north of the church. Some remains of this latter building existed in the middle of the eighteenth century. The stables belonging to the senate are now upon the same spot. These two citadels were begun about the year 1037. That built by Duke Bernard was situated on the Alster, a small river, which at present divides the old and new town. It was razed to the ground in 1066, when the Obotrites, one of the nations belong-

ing to the Slavi, having murdered their Christian prince Gotscale, returned to their Pagan gods, ravaged the whole of Saxony on the other side of the Elbe, and took possession of Hamburgh, which for the fifth time suffered for the Christian cause. The sixth and seventh invasion took place in 1072, when the city was taken by the Pagans, and almost entirely burned and destroyed.

Governors had been appointed by the different Emperors to guard these frontiers, and to defend Saxony against the incursions of the barbarians; and Otho the Great, upon going to Rome, named Herman Billing to this employment, who, dying in 978, was succeeded by Duke Bennon, his son. He departed this life in 1010, and his son Bernard inherited the duchy of Saxony, which he enjoyed till his death, which took place in 1061, when he was succeeded by his son Ordolphus, whose son Magnus died without issue.

After Hamburgh was sacked for the seventh time in 1072, the barbarians took possession of all the country on the north side of the Elbe, which groaned for some time under their yoke. More than six hundred families quitted Holstein, and took refuge in the forest of Hartz, when, in the year 1100, Henry, the son of Gotscale, prince of the Obotrites, having escaped to Saxony after the martyrdom of his father, contrived to bring about a reconciliation with Crucon, the usurper of his dominions, and having interested the wife of that tyrant in his favor, whom he promised to marry, he succeeded in dispatching Crucon, and re-establishing himself on the throne.

He immediately delivered the country to the north of the Elbe (Holstein) from the power of the Pagans, and restored it to Magnus, Duke of Saxony, who appointed a gentleman named Gotfrid, as governor, and bestowed on him the title of count of

that country. He resided at Hamburg, which was once more begun to be rebuilt, when a large party of Slavi, in 1106, entered Stormar, and seized a great number of men, and a quantity of cattle in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. Gotfrid immediately sallied forth, accompanied by a body of armed citizens, and pursued the marauders; but, imprudently advancing too near the enemy, he fell into an ambuscade, and was cut to pieces.

Duke Magnus was just dead; and the Emperor, Henry V. bestowed his dutchy on Lothario, Count of Supplenburg, who, after the death of Gotfrid, gave the counties of Holstein, Wagrie, and Stormar, to Adolphus, Count of Schawenbourg. By which means, Hamburg, being the capital of Stormar, made part of the sovereignty of the Counts of Schawenbourg, but subject likewise to the emperor as a fief belonging to the dutchy of Saxony. The above-mentioned Lothario is the same Saxon, who became emperor, after the decease of Henry the Fifth.

Count Adolphus immediately began to rebuild Hamburg, and the cathedral. His wife also erected a strong citadel on the ruins of that built by Duke Bernard. Adolphus dying in 1128, his son, Adolphus the Second, engaged in the quarrel which took place between Henry of Bavaria and Albert (surnamed the Bear) of Brandenburg, who disputed the dutchy of Saxony. Having embraced the party of Henry, which was the weakest in the beginning, he was deprived of his dominions, which were bestowed upon Henry, Count of Badevid, who, having no intention of keeping them in his possession, destroyed many fortresses, and amongst others those of Segebert and Hamburg. Adolphus II. being reinstated, built the city of Lubeck in 1140, and was killed in 1164 in the Pomeranian war. He was succeeded by his son, Adolphus III. who being too young to take the reins of governments, they were intrusted to the care of

a guardian; but, the moment he was of an age to act for himself, he followed the example of his father and grandfather, and bestowed much time and pains in embellishing Hamburgh. An unfortunate misunderstanding, however, taking place in 1181, between him and Henry, the latter took possession of his dominions; but being attacked, and put to flight by Frederick Barbarossa in 1182, the emperor took Lubeck, which has ever since remained a free and imperial city; and restored Holstein, Wagric, and Stormar, to Count Adolphus, who possessed them undisturbed till 1189, when he followed Frederick Barbarossa to the Holy Land. The city of Hamburgh having made him very rich presents for this expedition, he, in gratitude for such favors, engaged the emperor to exempt the city from all custom-house duties and taxes on the Elbe as far as the sea, which might be levied by the Count of Schawenbourg, in any war they might hereafter undertake; the same exemption also to exist every where under the dependence of those counts; and to forbid all persons to build either a fortified castle or citadel within ten miles of Hamburgh. To this he added the right of fishing in the Elbe ten miles above, and ten miles below the city; likewise five miles in the small river Bille, which falls into the Elbe at a little distance from Hamburgh.

After the emperor and Adolphus had departed for the Holy Land, Henry the Lion, who was in England, returned into Germany, retook Lubeck and Hamburgh, razed Barderie to the ground, after a long resistance, and sold the ruins to the Hamburghers, who employed them in building a bridge over the Elbe.

Adolphus returned from the crusade to defend his country, and was received at Hamburgh, from whence he soon drove out the enemy's garrison, and this city assisted him in the re-conquest

of the rest of his dominions; but the taxes he imposed, and the wars he engaged in against Waldemar, Duke of Schleswig, brother and successor of Canute, King of Denmark, ended by reducing Count Adolphus to the simple title of Duke of Schawenbourg. He built the chapel of St. Nicholas, situated in the quarter then called the New Town, and which is since become a considerable church. The abdication of Adolphus III. took place in the year 1203.

The chapters of Hamburgh and Bremen disputed, for a long time, the right of precedence; but it was at last decided in favor of Bremen, to which church Hamburgh ceded the title of Metropolitan.

The Danes kept possession of Stornar and the city of Hamburgh. The inhabitants ill supported a foreign yoke, and made some proposals to Adolphus III. who was so well satisfied in his retreat, that he refused to try his fortune anew. The Emperor, Otho IV. appeared before the city with his army, in 1215, when the citizens received him with open arms, and swore allegiance to the empire, from which, they declared, they had been forcibly separated. It is for this reason, they, to this day, call themselves the immediate subjects of the empire. No sooner was the emperor departed, than Waldemar, King of Denmark, besieged the city, which at first made a vigorous resistance, but at length was forced to capitulate. Waldemar did not observe the articles of capitulation, but behaved with great cruelty, and sold the city for ever to Albert, Count of Orlamunde, for seven hundred silver marks: but Waldemar being made prisoner by Henry, Count of Schwerin, Adolphus IV. the son of Adolphus III. Count of Schawenbourg, endeavoured to recover the inheritance of his forefathers.

Albert began his reign by gaining the affections of his new

subjects whom he governed with great mildness, and permitted to enjoy all the privileges granted them by the emperors, Dukes of Saxony, and Counts of Schawenbourg his predecessors; but when he perceived that Adolphus was supported in his claims by Gerard, Archbishop of Bremen, and Henry, Count of Schwerin, he was determined to make the most he possibly could of a possession which he found himself unable to retain. He therefore sold to the city of Hamburg, for fifteen hundred sixer marks, those claims which he had purchased from the King of Denmark; and having received the above-mentioned sum, immediately declared the city free and independent. He then marched against Adolphus, whom he took prisoner, and again possessed himself of Holstein, Wagrie, and Stormar.

He also returned to Hamburg, and confirmed all the privileges granted by his predecessors. His first care was to destroy every fortress in the neighbourhood of that city, which had been erected by the King of Denmark, to serve as a check to the citizens; among the number, was the fortress of Schifbeck, some of the ruins of which remain to this day. The posterity of this count kept possession of Hamburg, and that part of the country, till the death of Adolphus VIII. the last Count of Holstein of the house of Schawenbourg, who died in the year 1459.

Adolphus VIII. had a sister named Hedwige, who married Theodoric Fortunatus, Count of Oldenburg. By her he had three sons, the eldest of whom, Christian, became King of Denmark in 1448, King of Norway in 1450, and King of Sweden in 1458.

There still existed in Westphalia, Otho of Schawenbourg, who was undoubtedly the next heir to Adolphus: but the King of Denmark induced him to sell his right of succession; after which, he proceeded to Hamburg, which promised to submit to his authority. He then insisted that the citizens should take an

oath of allegiance, but this they refused, alleging, that it had never been demanded of them by his predecessors. Things, therefore, continued as formerly, and Zeyler (*Infer Saxon Topogr. page 127*) says, that they only promised him obedience on condition that the city should enjoy all its usual privileges, and that he would maintain their commerce both by sea and by land. His successors endeavoured once more to obtain the said oath, but the citizens constantly refused to take it; and only acknowledged them as under the emperor and empire; and without prejudice to the liberties granted to the city by them. During the lifetime of Christian III. the imperial fiscal laid claim to Hamburg as an imperial city. The cause was tried in the chamber of the empire, but this did not prevent the city from acknowledging Christian IV. in 1603; and afterwards Duke John Adolphus, of Schleswig and Holstein, to neither of whom they took the oath. The Emperor, Rodolphus II. together with the empire, pardoned this conduct; though Maximilian the First, in the year 1510, at the diet of Augsburg, had declared Hamburg to be a free imperial city; and though the house of Holstein had been sent to the chamber of Spires to dispute their claim according to law.

The reception of the Dukes of Holstein, which they regard as an oath taken to them of faith and homage, is merely a bond between the parties, which gives the Hamburgers a claim to the protection of the duke, since the city is governed by its own laws, and entirely independent of the said protectors*.

In the first place, the magistrates of Hamburg have full power in all affairs, both spiritual and temporal.

2, They name the burgomasters and counsellors, who are freely,

* Hubner Polit. Hist. v. 6. p. 356. and seq.

elected without either the consent or confirmation of the house of Holstein.

- 3, They confer the dignity of priesthood.
- 4, They make statutes and regulations about every hing relative to the police.
- 5, They exercise publicly all sovereign jurisdiction, both in civil and criminal laws ; they condemn and execute their sentence both within and without the city ; and this without any appeal to, or revision by the court of Holstein ; acknowleging no superior in this article but his imperial majesty, the aulic council, and the imperial chamber.
- 6, They exclude or receive all burgesses at their pleasure.
- 7, They dispose of all employments, and grant privileges.
- 8, They regulate and impose taxes and contributions.
- 9, They raise troops and militia in their district.
- 10, They make whatever treaties and alliances they please, without consulting the court of Holstein.
- 11, They do not employ the Duke of Holstein's troops in time of war.
- 12, They fortify the city, make use of their own artillery, have magazines, choose the commanding officers, and indeed all the military.
- 13, They have an exchequer, and the right of granting passports ; in short, they do not render to the house of Holstein any one duty as an acknowledgement of sovereignty.

Neither the pretensions of Denmark, nor the ambitious views of Prussia, were able, in the smallest degree, to affect the prosperity and the independence of Hamburgh. The excellence of the laws, and the wisdom of the government, were such as insure peace, and make commerce flourish. If we except the tumults, which followed the disputes between the senate and the citizens,

in 1708*, and those fomented by the French†, at the end of that same century, there are few cities which have enjoyed such perfect tranquillity. What has made Hamburgh of such great importance to the most considerable powers in Europe, is it's having preserved a neutrality, which must ever be regarded as an inestimable advantage to those princes who are engaged in continual wars, and whose navigation being too weak to furnish a sufficient convoy for their merchantmen, must naturally have recourse to a neutral flag; and that of Hamburgh has, hitherto, been almost always respected. During the hostilities between France, Holland, and England, the geographical situation, and the superiority of the navy of the two last-mentioned countries, shut up the entrance of the German ocean, and prevented France from trading directly to the coasts. Even when peace was concluded, that country was unable to recover it's commerce, which remained in the possession of the neutral powers, who reaped the greatest advantages from what had accidentally fallen into their hands, to the detriment of the French nation. The state of affairs, however, began at last to wear a different aspect, and even the long-established neutrality of Hamburgh was no longer respected; since the nineteenth century commenced by presenting to the

* Disputes took place between the senate and the citizens, which became very serious. A seditious priest, named Krumholz, increased the troubles by inflammatory sermons; he was taken up, and condemned to perpetual imprisonment. The neighbouring sovereigns sent troops to preserve order, and the citizens, tired out with their visit, made terms with the senate, and a reconciliation took place. This was effected by an imperial commission, which made such prudent arrangements, that no material alteration has since taken place.

† Hamburgh can never be said to have been really quiet since the beginning of the French revolution; but it would take up too much time to follow the said revolution in all it's different variations, to enter more particularly into it's system of disorganization, to describe all it's vexations, and to enumerate how often it has asked alms of the Hamburghers; or, rather enforced it's demands like a robber, with a pistol at the breast.

world one of those extraordinary scenes, the fatal consequences of which the actors were far from foreseeing would most probably fall on themselves. The Danes, conscious of their own weakness, had adopted the politic and pacific system of the Hamburgers. —They were convinced they could never reap any benefit from going to war; and took care to preserve the neutrality of their flag during all the successive feuds which had taken place between the most considerable powers of Europe. This conduct was attended with the greatest advantages to Norway, Zealand, and Holstein; these provinces became the seats of industry and plenty; and Altona might even almost be called the rival of Hamburg.

The French, who had constantly treated all coalitions with the greatest contempt, and laughed at their ill-success, had no sooner made peace with Russia, than they formed one of their own; which was not attended with more brilliant consequences, than those they had so frequently derided. We must, however, so far do justice to the Danes, as to allow that they were very desirous to avoid entering into the coalition of the north; they were, indeed, too sensible of the great advantage of their neutrality, not to do every thing in their power to preserve it.

The Hamburgers, having neither army nor navy, had always flattered themselves that they should be able to remain at peace with all the world, and were far from suspecting that they should be attacked by a neighboring power; which, to use it's own expressions, could not thus act towards them, without committing the greatest outrage against the law of nations. Such, I think, are nearly the terms employed by Denmark in the proclamations issued on the late expedition of the English to Zealand.

A very slight sketch of the conduct of that government towards Hamburg will be sufficient for the reader to form

a judgement of the affair; and to perceive, that throughout the whole of the business, the Danes, by their actions, have passed the severest censures against themselves; since, at a moment when the Hamburgers felt themselves in a state of perfect security, not having given the smallest provocation, these very Danes entered a free and independent territory, sword in hand, announcing to the magistrates, by their generals, that if they did not deliver up the keys of the city, it should be instantly bombarded. On the gates being thrown open, they insisted on the inhabitants paying and quartering the very troops which had reduced them to so humiliating a situation. They sequestered all English property, and invested commissaries with the power of making merchants produce their books and examining their accounts; a power, which must ever be considered as the greatest violation of the rights of merchants and citizens. In such a situation, what must have become of Hamburg, had not the death of the Emperor Paul; Lord Nelson's attack on Copenhagen; the just representations of Mr. Parish; envoy from Hamburg at the court of St. James; the firmness of Lord Hawkesbury, minister for foreign affairs; and the able conduct of Lord St. Helens, delivered her from her treacherous invaders?

There is, however, every reason to believe that the Hamburgers would have been more mild in their accusations against the Danish government, for having thus violated the rights ever respected amongst all civilized nations, had that government previously acquainted them that it had not declared war till all means of conciliation had been vainly employed; that it hoped they would not unavailingly expose themselves to the horrors of a siege; that the army, though forced for a short time to remain in their territories, should not be at their expence; that articles of all kinds should be paid for in ready money; that no

contributions should be levied ; that private property, whether national or foreign, should be respected ; and that no one on any pretext whatever should be allowed to enter the houses of any merchant, whether an ally or otherwise, nor oblige him to deliver up his papers, accompt-books, &c.

We will now leave our reader to his own reflections on this extraordinary business, and conclude our summary account of Hamburgh, by saying that the French have not, as yet, altered the mode of government, laws, nor magistracy of that city.

CHAP. VII.

The first Treaty of Commerce which took place at Hamburgh. — Origin of the Hanseatic League. — Signification of the word Hanse. — Fundamental Act of the Hanseatic Confederation, where drawn up. — Increase of it's power. — The four principal Comptoirs, established. — Their Police and Commerce. — Particulars of the Comptoir of London — Constitution of the League. — It's defects. — Brunswick severely punished for not submitting to the Decrees of the General Assembly of the League — The Decline of the Teutonic Hanse.

HAMBURGH, as has been mentioned in the preceding chapter, was for a long time a military port ; and having been frequently taken and plundered by the neighbouring powers, and by the barbarous northern nations, could never be regarded as a safe asylum for merchants ; since it is impossible for trade to flourish, or to be established on a firm foundation amidst the din of arms, or near the seat of warfare.

The commercial alliances formed by Hamburgh, are but very little known before the treaty with the city of Lubeck, in 1241* :

* See Lamb, Lebu. Ann. Hamb. ad. An. 1164 and 1240 de Thov. Hist. Lib. 51. the Père Barre, Hist. d'Allem. Ann. 1164, 1253, 1256, 1272, Auder. Orig. of Commerce, vol. 1. p. 151, 161, 200, 202, 212.

since which time, Hamburgh has contracted others, not only with all the northern, but likewise the southern parts of Europe ; and these, sometimes alone and independent, and sometimes jointly with the other Hanse towns.

Though Hamburgh only ranks second * among these towns, it frequently acts the principal part, is constantly attached to the Hanseatic confederation, and has, indeed, perpetuated it's existence ; by which means the annals of one must necessarily be those of the other. It does not enter into the plan of this work to record the different wars in which the Hanse towns have been engaged, but merely to give a succinct account of the most remarkable circumstances relative to their trade and to the principal factories where it flourished, with a recapitulation of the most important articles of which their commerce was composed.

The first treaty † between Hamburgh and Lubeck was for the purpose of ensuring a free communication both by land and

* All public acts of the Hanseatic confederation began as follows, " We the cities of Lubeck and Hamburgh, &c."

† The conditions of this treaty were, that the city of Hamburgh should clear the country of vagabonds and robbers between the river Trave and the city, and prevent pirates from cruising on the Elbe as far as the ocean ; that Hamburgh should pay half the expences of this undertaking ; that every thing which might tend to the benefit of the two cities should be concerted in common ; and that their forces should always be united to maintain their liberties and privileges.

The Hanse-towns defeated the pirates, who infested the Baltic, in 1384, and interrupted the herring fishery. They also carried on a successful war, in 1420, against the pirates, known in the history of the north by the name of *Vitaliens* or *Victualiens*, thus called from having supplied with victuals the Germans, besieged by the celebrated Queen Margaret, in Stockholm and Wistray.

The same pirates became afterwards so powerful, that their alliance was sought by different nations ; and the Hanse-towns, after having profitted by their assistance against Queen Margaret, were obliged to sue to them humbly for peace. The Hamblingers, in 1448, pursued the *Vitaliens*, discovered their most secret lurking places, and forced them to give up Emden and other towns in East Friesland, which, however, they were unable to keep long. About the year 1523, Lubeck and Hamburgh concerted toge-

water, between those cities and other parts of Europe. Having happily succeeded in their views, such advantages ensued, that other cities, being desirous of reaping the same benefits, joined Lubeck and Hamburgh; and it was most probably to the success of this union, that the Hanseatic league originally owed it's different allies, and the augmentation of it's power.

It is very difficult to trace the origin of this league, which has frequently been confounded with the confederation of the German cities, consequently thought to be very remote, the latter having existed a great length of time prior to the league. It is needless to enter into a subject of so very little importance; I shall therefore merely say, that, according to the best authors*, the Teutonic Hanse was instituted during the last twenty-five years of the thirteenth century.

The assembly held at Cologne in 1364, though it may not be regarded as the first meeting which took place, was certainly the first of any importance, since the fundamental act of the Hanseatic confederation† was then drawn up, and the general title of *Hanse*‡ given to it about that time. This word has been dif-

ther a descent in West Friesland, where their troops razed the principal fortresses of the Vitaliens to the ground; but these pirates continued their depredations, and were never entirely destroyed till Ulrich de Grethoil was invested with East Friesland, as a county, by the emperor.

* See Sartorius and Mallet, *Lig. Hanse.* p. 16.

† This fundamental charter of the Hansentic league, which did not take place on it's first institution, was not preserved with much care, since it is no where to be found at present. Mallet. *Lig. Hanse.* p. 27.

‡ The true signification of this word has very much engaged the attention of the learned, and given rise to a variety of conjectures. Werdenhagen and De Thou derive it either from three words, *an-der-see*, that is to say, *upon the sea*; alluding to an association of cities on the sea: or from *an-geel*, signifying *on the sea-shore*. — Lembecius *Orig. Hamb.* book ii. p. 61. Anderson *Orig. of Com.* vol. i. p. 161. Sastor and Mallet *Lig. Hans.* p. 27, are of opinion that it comes from the German word *Hantz*, in Latin *Hansa*, signifying in low German, and the different dialects of that language,

ferently interpreted, but the true meaning seems to be what the English term corporation.

The Teutonic Hanse was on it's first institution much approved by the different sovereigns in Europe, who regarded it as a society formed to protect their merchandise, and as a banking-house, always ready to furnish them with money; they were, therefore, easily induced to permit such an establishment in their several dominions*. Even the empire, so jealous of it's constitution, that no association† was allowed to be formed within it's limits, which could in any degree strike at it's prerogatives, permitted this institution; and though the emperors did not absolutely acknowledge it, they never expressly contested it's claim as a sovereign independent power, nor it's right to contract alliances, declare war, &c.

Whenever the Hanseatic league had occasion to address the emperor, it was always in the most submissive terms, giving him the title of our king, our gracious sovereign; and the maritime towns in Germany being very distant from the possessions of those princes who usually filled the imperial throne, and far re-

what the English call corporation, which is a society or company of people engaged in any trade, or branch of industry. *Hans*, in Latin *Hansæ* is employed in that sense (See And. Orig. of Com.) in King John of England's charters to several English towns, particularly to York city, and to Dunwich, in Suffolk, in the year 1199, viz. a society or corporation united for their joint benefit. Mallet, in the above-mentioned book, says, that the word *hanse* came originally from *hand*, which is employed generally in all the northern languages in the same sense, and may very well be taken as the symbol of an association: it is made use of in several antient charters, particularly in one of Henry III. King of England, in 1267, where it implies an association of merchants at Hamburgh, and Lubeck, consequently, it is now generally understood in that sense.

* The continual warfare in which the European princes were engaged till the 16th century, made the means of procuring money an affair of the greatest consequence.

† See Golden Bull, ch. 15. *Confederationes et pacta, et consuetudinem introductam reprobamus, et ex certa scientia irritamus.*

moved from the theatre of war, disputes seldom happened between them; indeed, whenever the emperors took up arms against the league, they were always unsuccessful, and their authority suffered in the contest*.

The Hanseatic league, on it's first commencement, made choice of a protector, whose title and power were not of a nature to make him formidable; this was the first grand master of the order of Christ†, and afterwards the masters of the Teutonic knights of Livonia.

The Emperor, Charles IV. author of the celebrated Golden Bull, vainly endcavoured to be declared chief of the Hanseatic league. Flattered with the hope of success, he went in person to Lubeck, where the senate entertained him with great magnificence, but he could obtain nothing more than empty homage. Many other sovereigns‡ were ambitious of the same title, but their endeavours were equally fruitless. Such, indeed, were the apprehensions of choosing a protector from among crowned heads, that after the suppression of the Teutonic knights of Livonia||,

* Particularly during the reign of the Emperor Sigismund. See Mallet Lig. Hans. p. 157.

† This order had but two great masters, being united to the Teutonic order in 1237. The knights, who composed the order of Christ, were termed knights sword-bearers of Livonia, from the sword and red cross on their white mantles; this occasioned the mistake of many authors, who gave the same title to the Teutonic knights, who succeeded them. See Anderson, Orig. of Com. vol. i. p. 162, and L'Art de vérifier les Dates, tom. iii. p. 548.

‡ The Kings of France, Denmark, Sweden, Poland, and Spain. See And. Orig. of Com. vol. i. p. 162.

|| See Ander. Orig. of Com. p. 162. This author dates the suppression in 1525, whereas it did not take place till 1561, after the apostacy and defection of Gothard Kettler, the last master of Livonia, and first Duke of Courland. See l'Art de vérifier les Dates, vol. iii. p. 568.

the Hanseatics refused every proposal made on this subject, and elected another.

The submissive and respectful language held by the league towards the emperor was very much the same with that the Hanse towns employed towards their lords paramount, and the conduct of these towns towards the said lords was likewise the same as that of the league to the emperor; since both acknowledged that they owed them duty as their sovereign lords, according to law and justice, and both were very unmindful of such duty when circumstances induced them to act otherwise.

The lords paramount, being jealous of their authority, frequently molested the towns, and went to war with them; the towns had then recourse to the league, which having a much superior force to any of those petty princes, peace was presently made, and the grievances of all under the protection of the league as quickly redressed. So conscious were they of the advantage of such a support, that no means were left unemployed to obtain it; and from that moment the political and commercial relations of the Hanse became very extensive; and in so short a time, that it reflected the greatest honor on the heads of the league, whilst it was very little to the credit of the administration with whom they had to treat.

The first hospital of the Teutonic order was formed with the sails of some Bremen and Lubeck vessels*, near St. John d'Acre;

* The christians having besieged Ptolemais, or St. John d'Acre, in 1199, some citizens of Bremen and Lubeck, touched with compassion for the sufferings of such numbers of sick and wounded Germans in the army of the Crusaders, contrived a tent, made of the sails of one of their transports (termed *coquets*, cock-boats, and *cogo* or *coca* in Latin,) (*Ducange Gloss*) which served us an hospital, where they received their infirm countrymen. *L'Art de vérifier les Dates*, vol. iii. p. 538.

and the first staples, of any consequence, in possession of the Hanse, were in the ports belonging to that order.

Towards the middle of the twelfth century, some seamen, belonging to Bremen and Lubeck, first discovered the mouth of the Dwina, where they founded a sort of colony, and formed connexions with the inhabitants of the banks of the river, which were soon extended from Livonia to Esthonia, and from thence throughout the whole of Russia. About the end of the thirteenth century, the commercial agents of the Teutonic Hanse in that empire were sufficiently numerous to form a corporation, consisting of an alderman or antient, with lateral judges, to decide upon all disputes, without prejudice, however, to the right of appealing to the tribunals of Lubeck. A *Comptoir** was soon established at Novogorod, which possessed great privileges. It was the source of many other institutions of the same nature, which regarded it as a model, and looked up to it for support †.

The principal articles of commerce of the republic of Great Novogorod, and the vast neighbouring countries, were very much the same as at present. They consisted in skins, leather, fur, grain, timber, metals, honey, raw and wrought hemp, and wax. The demand for the latter was very great, owing to the vast profusion consumed in all the churches in Europe.

The Hanseatics supplied all the western parts of Europe with these articles, particularly the ports of Flanders and England ;

* In Latin *contorii* i.e. *comptoirs*, or vulgarly *cantores*, or general computing-houses.

† Some authors regard the comptoir of Bergen as the most antient, (see Anderson Orig. of Com. vol. i. p. 389.) but they do not affirm it very positively, making use of the expression it seems ; it is, therefore, unnecessary to combat so vague an opinion. The act of foundation of the comptoir of Bergen was dated in 1445 ; and when that at Novogorod was destroyed by Iwan Vasilowitz, in 1494, Verdenhagen says, that the latter town had traded with the Hanse towns four hundred years ; whilst De Thon (book 51.) takes off one hundred years, and dates it's origin in 1272.

from whence they brought back woollen cloth, tin, jewels,* and a variety of objects of luxury, which were eagerly sought after, not only by the different princes and sovereigns in Russia, but by the numerous Boyards, very nearly equal in all respects to their masters. They had also a comptoir at Pleskow, and most probably another at Moscow; but they were neither of them of such importance as that at Novogorod.

Though the Hanseatics had never any comptoirs in Sweden, they enjoyed too many privileges†, and carried on too extensive a trade in that kingdom, to be passed over in silence. Their principal staple was at Wisby, in the Isle of Gothland. This town is famous, not only for it's riches, which induced Waldemar, King of Denmark, to pillage it, but for the wisdom of it's maritime code, which has been adopted by many other nations‡. The storehouses were filled with the produce of Sweden, viz. wood, iron, copper, skins, dried, smoked, and salted fish, train-oil, pitch and tar. These were exchanged for salt, woollen and linen cloths, different sorts of stuffs, wine, beer, fruit, spices, and all kinds of utensils, furniture, and tools.

The commerce betwixt Norway and the Hanse was much more extensive than with Sweden. One of the most flourishing comptoirs was at Bergen||, and the number of people employed in it's service was so considerable, that a separate quarter, consisting of twenty-one great buildings, could scarcely contain them.

* The town of Bruges furnished almost the whole of the jewels.

† Especially in 1360, see Mallet, Lig. Hans. p. 66.

‡ See Anderson Orig of Com. tom. i. p. 179.

|| The people employed by the different towns of Hamburg, Bremen, Rostock, Wismar, and Stralsund, had their lodgings, offices, and storehouses in common, in the comptoir of Bergen, which was founded in the reign of Eric of Pomerania. The Emperor, Christopher of Bavaria, granted it a charter, expressing his approbation in 1445, which year, may properly be regarded as that of it's foundation.

An overseer was appointed in each of these buildings, who gave judgement upon the first demand on the different causes which came before him ; above him was a council of merchants, consisting of one or two aldermen, or antients, and eighteen lateral judges. The alderman was elected at Lubeck, and sent from thence to reside five years at Bergen. In serious causes, a last appeal was allowed to be made to the directory of the league sitting at Lubeck.

Bergen furnished the Hanseatics with leather, skins, furs, butter, wood, train-oil, whales, cod, and other fish from the more northern climates of Iceland, Greenland, the Faro, and the Orkney Islands. These were exchanged for the same articles as in Sweden, which gave up a great part of them to Norway. The profits arising from* salt alone were enormous, since it was of the greatest importance to a land of fishermen, whose very existence depends upon salt-fish, which is almost their only food; and to the sale of which, they owe the whole of their support. This trade with Denmark was always joined with that of Norway, and very frequently with Sweden ; but the articles composing it being very much of the same nature, it is needless to recapitulate them. The herring fishery, indeed, merits some observation, it being the branch of commerce the Hanseatics were the most desirous of engrossing. Whilst this fish frequented the coasts of Pomerania, they had no dangerous rivals to fear: but when they shifted to those of Schonen, the case was different ; for Denmark, which was then in possession of that Swedish province, disputed the fishery with great obstinacy, but with little success. For a long time it belonged exclusively to Lubeck, Hamburgh, Rostock, and Wismar, which alone had privileged markets in Scanoer

* This branch of commerce was entirely monopolized by the Hanseatics.

and Falsterbo, both towns in Schonen ; but after the peace concluded in 1370, by which Denmark became a province of the league, since no king could be elected without its approbation and consent, the same privileges granted to the four above-mentioned towns were likewise granted to all the others belonging to the Hanse. An alderman, or magistrate, was appointed in common to maintain these numerous privileges. His place of residence was at Malmoë at that time the most considerable and best situated town for the herring fishery in the province of Schonen. The Hanse towns alone had the right to have shops and butts on the coast, in which were contained every thing necessary for fishing, salting, and selling herrings. This fishery was not subject to any duties, and, indeed, in every other branch of commerce the league was more favored than the natives. The Hanseatic vessels transported the greatest part of their herrings to Flanders and Holland, from whence they were exported to all other catholic countries, in which considerable quantities were consumed. The intermediate situation of Flanders and Holland between the north and the south, the industry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, their direct correspondence with France and Spain, joined to the danger and length of the voyage on the coast of the last-mentioned countries, induced the Hanseatics to shorten it as much as possible, by seldom going further than the entrance of the channel. They had a comptoir at Bruges, and another at Antwerp, with storehouses at Ghent and Ypres ; but the most important affairs were transacted at Bruges, which contained sixty-eight trading companies, where the art of working in woollen, silk, gold, and silver, was brought to the greatest perfection. Commerce began to be so well understood, that in 1310 an insurance office was established, and the regulations for Exchange were in full force :—Thus the

comptoir of Bruges continued for a long time to be much the most productive of any of these institutions, all of which served, like so many canals, to transport the riches of the whole of Europe to the league.

The factory of Bruges, or, as it was termed, "the residence of the German merchants," was governed in the same manner as the other establishments of the same nature; except, indeed, in trifling instances, when their different situations required some little restrictions. At one time this factory maintained three hundred merchants, reckoning both factors and journeymen. These were scattered about in different parts of the low countries, and were intrusted with the management of all the commercial affairs of the Hanse Towns. After having been thus employed for several successive years, they were removed from this situation, and generally appointed to the most eminent posts in the league. So long a residence amongst an enlightened nation, particularly jealous of its privileges, contributed greatly to form these men to business; they were indeed so able, that the directors and magistrates were usually chosen from amongst them.

A council, composed of six aldermen or antients, and eighteen counsellors, directed all the affairs of the comptoir of Bruges, together with those transacted in the Belgic. It was, however, subordinate to the general councils sitting at Lubeck. The president was elected annually, and made oath, to submit himself to the statutes of the factory, and to cause them to be observed in all strictness, to the best of his five natural senses.

This president, together with the judges lateral, tried all causes relative to their dependents, and pronounced upon them in the first instance; but if the offences were committed in the low countries, a national judge could alone take cognizance of them.

Bruges was the principal place where the Hanseatics deposited the merchandizes they brought from Russia, from other northern countries, and from the eastern coast of the Baltic, such as wood, iron, pitch, tar, hemp, and linen cloth; articles so necessary to seafaring people, and which they monopolized entirely. These they exchanged at the same place, for the beautiful tapestry manufactured in Flanders, for stuffs of every kind, jewels, and the different commodities brought from France, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant, into that country.

Several towns in Friesland and Holland entered at an early period into the Hanseatic confederation, to which they were a most useful acquisition. The first warlike preparations were made in their ports against Waldemar, King of Denmark; (1364) but neither of these provinces had, what was then termed a comptoir, in any of their towns, nor had they any direct commerce with the Baltic, that branch belonging entirely to the north of Germany. France was in the same situation; her trade with the league being for a long time very trifling, and never having any factory, such as we have already described. Philip the Fair, indeed, towards the end of the thirteenth century, permitted the towns of Lubeck, Hamburgh, Riga, Wisby, and Wismar, to trade in his ports, on condition of paying the customary duties; but this commerce only consisted in the importation of salt-fish, herrings, &c. which was nearly counterbalanced by the exportation of salt; for as to wine, it is scarcely worth mentioning, the northern nations giving a decided preference to Hock, Rhenish, &c.

The Hanseatic league was however acknowledged as a sovereign state by France, (1470) and an alliance proposed against England. Disputes afterwards took place between the league and Lewis XI., (1487) who terminated them by a treaty, which his son Charles

VIII. finally concluded. This treaty was extremely favorable to the Hanseatics, since they were allowed by it the same treatment in France as the natives; to be judged with equal impartiality; to pay very moderate entrance duties; to be permitted the disposal of their property, and liberty to send it out of the kingdom; to quit it likewise themselves; and to bury their dead in consecrated ground*.

In short, should any new disputes take place betwixt France and the league, they were not to be decided by common law, but by a commission composed of the admiral and vice-admiral of France, the great baillif de Rohan, the senechals of Aquitaine, Ponthieu, and Lyons, with the governors of La Rochelle, Artois, and Boulogne†. This convention was the groundwork of all the following ones‡; and the articles on both sides being not particularly mentioned, there is reason to believe they were very few in number, and mostly comprised in those already named.

The commercial correspondence between the Hanseatics and

* "What could possibly have given rise to such a condition being demanded? History does not inform us;" says Mallet. (*Lig. Hans.*)—It appears extraordinary, that this celebrated author should be ignorant that formerly all church-yards were regarded as holy ground, in which none but the faithful were suffered to be interred; and the Osterlings were the last people in Europe who embraced the Christian religion. The word Osterling is derived from *Ost*, which signifies the east, and from *see* the sea; *Ost see* is therefore used for the Baltic sea.

† For this convention, see Dumont Corps. Dipl. tom. iii. p. 2.

‡ The kings of France have at different times made treaties with the league. There are acts extant in favor of this confederation. One in 1536, during the reign of Francis I.; another in 1552, in that of Henry II.; a third in 1604, in that of Henry IV.; and a fourth, in 1655, in the reign of Lewis XIV. But the treaty which settled the commerce between France and the Hanse Towns, when reduced to the three cities of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Bremen, upon the best and surest foundation, was concluded in the year 1716. Anderson not having mentioned it, we purpose supplying that deficiency in the Appendix.

Spain and Portugal, is but little known, and most probably was, for a long time, very trifling. During the reign of John III. it was entirely interrupted, and that at a time when it appeared to have been of much more importance, since that monarch confiscated at once eighty-four of their vessels; (1441) upon which the comptoir of Bruges issued out orders to make reprisals, and to shut out the Spaniards from all the ports in the low countries. This misunderstanding lasted till the reign of Philip II. (1551) who put an end to it, by a treaty greatly in favor of the Hanseatics. Some of the articles of this treaty, though of so remote a date, were the foundation of the privileges enjoyed by the three cities which are now termed the Hanse Towns.

The commerce with Italy and the Levant was entirely engrossed by Venice, Genoa, and Tuscany, and was carried on immediately with Germany and the low countries, through Augsburg, Nuremberg, Switzerland, the Tyrol, Swabia, and Bavaria. In order to consolidate it as much as possible, a league was formed in the thirteenth century between the free imperial cities on the Rhine, and Upper Germany*. This was composed of about sixty towns, and bore a strong resemblance to the Hanseatic confederacy; indeed the constitution was very much the same, since it equally tended to insure the exportation of goods from the Levant and Italy. Nothing appears easier than the union of these two leagues, which, however, never took place; they were indeed prejudicial to each other: for no sooner had the one rendered travelling through the interior of Germany safe, than the protection of the other became less necessary: consequently the different towns were also less eager to form any association. The commercial connexion between England and the Hanseatic

* See Anderson Orig. of Com. tom. i. p. 228.

league was very antient, and of great importance*. It perhaps was more easy to form than any other; since, some centuries before, the Angles and Saxons, who conquered that country, and who reigned over it, came from Lower Saxony and the adjacent provinces.

Towards the middle of the twelfth century, Henry II., of England, had taken the Lubeckers, and indeed all the German navigators, under his protection. King John, in the thirteenth century, had granted them permission to trade in his dominions; and Henry III. insured to the Hanscatic league all those immunities and privileges which it enjoyed, with scarcely any abatement during the space of three hundred years†. The principal comptoir in London, was in Thames-Street, on the right bank of the river, where there was a fine and spacious quay, very convenient for trade. Here was an antient building, called the Guildhall of the Germans‡, which, being not sufficiently roomy for the increased commerce of the Hanscatics, they enlarged the inclosures, added to the warehouses, and built new dwelling-houses.

* The Hanscatics were commonly called *Esterlings* in England; that is to say, men of the east, their country being to the east of Great-Britain. Mallet (*Lig. Hans.* p. 83.) adds, that it being usually stipulated in all states, that the payments should be made in the coin of the east country, or the easterlings, it is very probable the expression of pound sterling came originally from that term.

† See Vendenhagen, Lambecius, De Thou, and Anderson. These authors do not agree about the year when this grant took place. Some asserting that it was in 1250, and others in 1266. This last opinion seems the most probable. The charter given by Henry III. is not quoted by any of these authors: if it be still in existence, it must be either in the archives of Lubeck or of Hamburgh. Lambecius is the only one who takes notice of a charter dated the 9th of November, in the 44th year of the reign of Henry III.

‡ See Anderson *Orig. of Com.* tom. i. p. 228. *Gilthaldus Teutonicum*, i. c. Guildhall of the Germans. This quarter was appropriated to the first towns in Germany which had any commercial relations with England, long before the establishment of the Hanscatic league.

They were so prodigal of their gold, that they induced the different kings of England to grant them fresh privileges, which did not always meet with the approbation of the parliament and the city of London: consequently these two bodies frequently disputed the validity of the grants, and endeavoured to prevent their fulfilment.

The acts of piracy in which the English indulged against the Hanseatic vessels, and which were neither punished nor discontinued, occasioned the strongest remonstrances on the part of the league*. These were followed by an obstinate and bloody war, in which the Hanscatics were joined by the Danes. No sooner was it declared, than the English took possession of the comptoir of London, and hanged all the people employed in it, excepting the natives of the city of Cologne, with which England continued at peace.

Some English vessels being taken in the Sound, sixty belonging to the enemy underwent the same fate. Hostilities were not confined to bare reprisals; the Hanseatics attacked the coasts of Great-Britain, made frequent descents, committed great depredations in the maritime provinces, and carried off the miserable inhabitants, whom they hanged at the masts of their vessels.

The English being thus attacked at home, and perceiving their commerce nearly ruined, addressed themselves to the celebrated Duke of Burgundy, Charles the Bold, (1474) and implored his mediation with the Hanseatics; who, wishing to keep fair with a sovereign, in whose dominions were some of their richest establishments, consented to his demand with a good grace. Utrecht

* The city of Lubeck burst forth with such violence, and employed such threats, that Henry IV., in a letter addressed to the city of Cologne, complained of the pride and insolence of the inhabitants. (*Protervia et Elatus Animus Lubecensium.*)

was made choice of by this prince to hold an assembly, where the interests of the contending parties should be discussed. It was there decided, that the English should be allowed to trade in the Baltic, and to the ports of Dantzick and Prussia, whilst the Hanscatics were not only confirmed in all their antient privileges, but granted new ones. For instance, should any difficulties arise for the future, they should no longer be considered as within the jurisdiction of the English admiralty court. It was also settled that when any privileges should be granted to the Hanscatics, either by the king or the chancellor, they should be immediately published in all the different ports; and if any officer attempted to oppose them, he should be immediately brought before a court of justice. At the same time they were put in full possession of a great tract of ground in London, Boston, and Lynn, where they were allowed to erect new buildings, to take down old ones, and to dispose of every thing within this space; and that without being subject to any superior authority, or additional tax. Edward IV., by the same treaty, engages not to allow any other foreigners to partake of these privileges; and the Hanscatics bind themselves, that none but those persons employed in their service shall be suffered to enjoy them. The city of London gave them up the gate called Bishop's gate*, on condition, that if London should at any time be besieged by an enemy, they should be at one third of the expense of guarding and defending the said gate, which they were likewise bound to keep in repair. In short, the city of London solemnly promised to conform, in the

* See James Howell's *Londinopolis*, p. 98. It appears that the league of the Germanic cities had formerly occupied the same gate, and upon the same conditions; since in the tenth year of Edward the First's reign, they were obliged to furnish 210 marks, (420l. sterling,) for the repairs of the said gate.

strictest manner, to the above articles, and also to several others too tedious to recapitulate.

The tract of ground granted to the Hanscatics by Edward IV. in the treaty of Utrecht, was termed the Steel Yard*. This place, and indeed every building belonging to the comptoir, was surrounded by a strong, high wall: all persons employed by the league, residing within this inclosure, and were under as strict a discipline as a friar in his cell, eating in common, and being condemned to a state of celibacy.

An alderman, two lateral judges, and nine counsellors, had the entire direction of the factory. A council sat every week, composed of these twelve personages; in which they deliberated on the interest, operations, and plans of the comptoir, and decided any disputes which might possibly arise.

The principal people employed in the different functions of the league, and their officers deputed from it to the comptoir of London, were divided into three classes. The first was formed of those from the cities of Cologne, Guelderland, and the east of the Rhine. The second from Westphalia, the country of Berg, the Lower Rhine, Lower Saxony, and Vandalia. And the third consisted of the duponics from Prussia, Livonia, and the Swedish island of Gothland. By which means every country which formed a part of the league, had its representatives in the comptoir of England.

Each of these classes elected four deputies from amongst them-

* Lambecius calls it *steel hoff*, which is only a contraction of *staple hoff*; that is, a general receptacle for all kinds of merchandize. Orig. of Com. tom. i. p. 228. Maillet, (in his Lig. Hans.) p. 270, says the expression *steel yard* comes most probably from *steel*; because it was in this place that the Hanscatics deposited the wrought and unwrought iron which they brought from the different northern countries.

selves, on the last day of every year: and a president, with three judges lateral, were chosen by private scrutiny, from the twelve elected. These did not enter into office till they had sworn to maintain, to the utmost of their power, the regulations, customs, rights, privileges, and liberties of the league in England; to administer justice with the strictest impartiality to all under their jurisdiction, whether rich or poor; and that both in London, and all other towns in England and Scotland*, the ports of which ~~were~~ frequented by their vessels.

A general assembly was held annually, at which the statutes and privileges of the Hansatic confederacy were publicly read. The principle of these regulations was to monopolize the commerce of the nation in which the factory was established†. This assembly, and indeed all others of the same nature, was subject to the general assembly of the league, to which appeals might be made after the decrees were pronounced.

The exportation trade of the Hansatics with England, consisted principally in leather, tin, unwrought wool, and particularly in cloth before it was prepared or dyed. This they sent into their own states, and still more frequently into Flanders, where it was colored and stiffened ready for sale. As to the importation commerce, it was very much the same as that with Holland and the low countries.

The establishment of these comptoirs caused so much jealousy among the natives, that the people employed, and the merchandise contained in them, were far from being secure. This in-

* The Hansatics had no privileged comptoir in Scotland; but their vessels traded with that country. This commerce was almost entirely engrossed by the town of Bremen; but it was frequently interrupted by piracies, and other hostilities.

† A statute made in 1447, prohibited the exportation of English merchandize in any other vessels but those belonging to the league.

duced the league to request permission to fortify them, and their petition was soon granted by government, which frequently stood in need of their riches and assistance. By this means the comptoirs were insured from all insult; and they were also allowed an independent civil government of their own, not subject to the common law of the different countries in which they were situated.

To prevent the natives from complaining of such an extraordinary privilege, and so distinguished a mark of favor, the Hapsburgs established such a severe discipline in these fortified cloisters, that it is inconceivable that any agents could be found, willing to submit to it. Few monasteries were so strict, for they were not only forbidden to marry, but were not allowed the smallest communication with the inhabitants; neither were they suffered to sleep out of the inclosure, or to divulge any thing relative to the affairs in which they were employed. In some of these comptoirs, particularly at Bergen, the trials they underwent before they were received were of such a nature that it is surprising they should enter into the imagination of a human being, and still more incredible that any one should consent to undergo them. These trials were termed *plays*, a soft appellation, which could not, however, deaden the feelings of the sufferers. There were more than thirty in number, but the three principal ones were, *smoke*, *water*, and the *scourge*; these were exercised with such severity, that the candidates sometimes sunk under the operation. The inhabitants of Bergen were present at these barbarous experiments; and the instant they were announced, they repaired to the spot with as much eagerness, and in as great crowds, as if they were going to witness the most interesting show. Not satisfied with being merely spectators, they usually accompanied the groans and screams of the sufferers with

music, and formed a concert of cries with these unfortunate wretches.

This cruel ceremony over, a herald, or rather a kind of buffoon, made his appearance, and pronounced, with a loud voice, a prayer, that the noble custom of trials might never be abolished, and that for the honor and prosperity of the commerce of the Hanscatic comptoir, it might always be held in veneration.

Such, during many centuries, were the commercial establishments formed by the league. It was particularly essential that they should be preserved in the Hanse Towns, in which neither arts nor trades of any kind had been brought to much perfection. Their manufactures of stuffs were in a state of infancy when compared to those of the Low Countries; and their coarse cloths were likewise very much inferior*: they were therefore obliged to buy those articles in Flanders and England; and Germany furnished them with Rhenish wine, beer (at that time esteemed the best in Europe), grain, flower, malt, Saxon and Westphalia linen, with some few metals and minerals. These articles, however, were very inconsiderable, when compared with the produce of the commerce they carried on exclusively with the three northern kingdoms, and the other vast regions to the north-east of Europe. It was indeed owing to the different branches of this immense commerce, that the Hanscatics bought every thing necessary, not only for the maintenance of their own navy, but for that of other nations, at a low price. They also purchased, at a very cheap rate, wax, tallow, potash, leathers, furs, and the produce of the great and small fisheries on the coasts of Schonen, Norway, Lapland, Iceland, Greenland, &c. These different articles were

* The art of manufacturing fine cloths, and other stuffs, employed in objects of luxury, which the Flemish refugees had introduced into Germany, had never been brought to any degree of perfection in the maritime towns in the north of Europe.

still more profitable, because they were always shipped on board the vessels belonging to the Hanse towns, and no others were permitted to bring back those for which they were exchanged.

The riches produced by such great commercial connexions, raised the power of the league to so high a degree of prosperity, and it became so formidable, that it declared war against sovereigns, disposed at pleasure of their crowns, and insisted on the hardest and most humiliating conditions from those princes whom it supported or placed on the throne*. Such an abuse of authority disgraced the victories of the Hanseatics, and would have accelerated their ruin even if the league had not contained in itself a destructive principle, which must necessarily prevent it's enjoying either a solid or lasting power. The situation of the different towns which composed it, and which were distributed over a space of many thousand leagues, without any fixed place of meeting for debates, occasioned many difficulties. Cologne expected the preference, because the fundamental act of the league was drawn up in that city: it therefore disputed the point most vehemently with Lubeck, to which pre-eminence had been granted, not only on account of it's opulence and advantageous situation, but because custom had intitled it the Capital from the commencement of the Hanseatic confederacy. That city contained the archives and all the public offices of the league, together with it's correspondence, both public and private. The congresses were held there in large magnificent apartments, in which the foreign ministers had their audience. All assemblies, both general and particular, were convoked from Lubeck. One of the burgomasters acted as president on these occasions, having,

* Among these princes, Waldemar, King of Denmark, preserved his crown on condition that, for the future, he should hold it from the league, and that his successors should not ascend the throne without it's consent.

on his right hand, a deputy from Hamburgh, and, on his left, one from Cologne. Particular circumstances have, indeed, sometimes caused the removal of the general congress from Lubeck, and several have been held at Hamburgh, Bremen, Luncburgh, &c.*

It does not appear that the Lubeckers were always very jealous of their prerogative, since they offered to give up the management of the affairs of the league to Cologne; but the rest of the Hanseatic towns having refused their consent to this measure, Cologne gave up all her pretensions, and no other town has ever since made any new ones.

The Hanseatic league certainly labored under a very great disadvantage in not having a fixed seat of power, where an armed force might at all times be maintained, sufficient to awe an enemy; where a general rendezvous might be held for all the protectors of the league, who might fight under the same banners; and where such engagements might be entered into, as would prevent any of the members from deserting in time of war, or disobeying in time of peace; and such an union be established between

* The most celebrated congress was held in 1536, at Hamburgh, at which was signed the peace called by that name, which terminated the long war between the King of Denmark and the Lubeckers. This war was first caused by the senate of Denmark having refused to shut out the Dutch from the Sound. George Wallenwer, first magistrate of Lubeck, and meyer-commandant of the troops belonging to that town, distinguished themselves particularly on the occasion; the latter had formerly been a locksmith at Hamburgh. These men, after having changed the constitution of Lubeck, after having been idolised by the inhabitants, whom they had drawn into a war which at first was generally applauded, were afterwards punished with death, when it was discovered that their intrigues and their military achievements were not crowned with the promised success. During this war, the Lubeckers made an offer of the crown of Denmark to Henry VIII. of England, to be disposed of at his pleasure, and (see Cartes vol. iii. p. 127.) received considerable sums of money from that prince. It also appears (see Mallet Lig. Hans. p. 227.) that they offered it equally to Francis, I. King of France.

the cities, that every one enjoying the same privileges, and partaking of the same benefits, might hold the same employments, and be exposed to the same dangers. The league was not only destitute of the first principles which strengthen the foundation of all political bodies, but deprived of those secondary supports so indispensably necessary to confirm the constitution ; since the mutual engagements, made to protect the liberties of some of the Hanse towns were not generally made by the rest*. The treaties between many of the cities had nothing in common with the others; they differed, likewise, with those made from foreign powers, and the smaller towns were always sacrificed to the interest of the more considerable ones. The manner of collecting the votes in a congress was never exactly determined. Sometimes a majority was alone required; at others a perfect unanimity was insisted upon. Neither the number nor the condition of the deputies were ascertained; by which means the congress was composed, indiscriminately, of ecclesiastics, lawyers, magistrates, and merchants. Extraordinary as it may appear, the general assembly held in 1418, was the very first which comprised every part, and all the circles of the league*. It was in this assembly that the towns engaged themselves to procure the glory of God, and to maintain peace in the cities and throughout the country; and that against all and every one, the emperor alone excepted, reserving in the same manner what each of the confederates owed to his legitimate lord paramount, in honor and in justice.

A former assembly, indeed, had been held, (1373) in which a state of defence had been regulated in case of attack; a matricu-

* There has never been a single instance of a war undertaken by the whole of the league, to avenge the quarrel of any one particular town.

† See Sartorius, tom. ii, p. 11, &c. and Mallet, p. 101.

lar book or register* made out to ascertain the quota of men and

* See Anderson, p. 356, 357. Werdenhagen, the historian of the Hanseatic league, gives in his second volume, part iv. chap. xxvi. p. 89. the following catalogue; to which he annexes the annual quota of each city and town to the public stock or expence.

Imperial Dollars.

Lubeca	-	-	Lubeck	-	-	-	-	100
Colonia	-	-	Cologne	-	-	-	-	100
Brema	-	-	Bremen	-	-	-	-	60
Hamburgum	-	-	Hamburgh	-	-	-	-	80
Rostochrum	-	-	Rostock, in the dutchy of Mecklenburg	-	-	-	-	50
Straelsunda,	-	-	Stralsund, in Pomerania	-	-	-	-	50
Wismaria	-	-	Wismar, in the dutchy of Mecklenburg	-	-	-	-	25
Magdeburgum	-	-	Magdeburg	-	-	-	-	40
Brunsviga	-	-	Brunswick	-	-	-	-	50
Dantiscum	-	-	Dantzick	-	-	-	-	80
Luneburgum	-	-	Lunenburgh	-	-	-	-	60
Stetinum	-	-	Stetin, the capital of Pomerania	-	-	-	-	40
Gryphiswalda	-	-	Grypeswald, in Pomerania	-	-	-	-	25
Hildeshemium	-	-	Hildeshom	-	-	-	-	30
Goslaria	-	-	Goslar, in the dutchy of Brunswick	-	-	-	-	30
Gottinga	-	-	Gottingen, in the dutchy of Brunswick	-	-	-	-	30
Einthecca	-	-	Eintrick, in the dutchy of Brunswick	-	-	-	-	10
Hanovera	-	-	Hanover	-	-	-	-	25
Hanela	-	-	Hanelin, in the dutchy of Brunswick	-	-	-	-	20
Colberga	-	-	Coleberg, in Pomerania	-	-	-	-	25
Stargarda	-	-	Stargard, in Pomerania	-	-	-	-	25
Anclamum	-	-	Anclam, in Pomerania	-	-	-	-	18
Stada	-	-	Staden, in the dutchy of Bremen	-	-	-	-	20
Boxtehnda	-	-	Boxtehude, in the dutchy of Bremen	-	-	-	-	20
Gulnova	-	-	Golnaw, in the dutchy of Pomerania	-	-	-	-	8
Thorma	-	-	Thorne, in Polish Prussia	-	-	-	-	20
Ellboga	-	-	Ellung, in Polish Prussia	-	-	-	-	20
Koningsburga	-	-	Koningsburg, the capital of Brandenburg, Prussia	-	-	-	-	60
Braunsberga	-	-	Braunsberg, in Polish Prussia	-	-	-	-	20
Riga	-	-	Capital of Livonia	-	-	-	-	50
Revela	-	-	Revel, in Livonia	-	-	-	-	50
Dorpatum	-	-	Dorpt, in Livonia	-	-	-	-	20
Parnovia	-	-	Parnaw or Pernaw, in Livonia	-	-	-	-	20

money to be furnished by each city; and capital punishments denounced against delinquents; but proper measures had not been taken to carry their plans into execution. The great

Culmeum	-	-	Culm, in Polish Prussia	-	-	-	10
Neomagium	-	-	Nimwegen, in Guelderland	-	-	-	35
Davantria	-	-	Daventer, in Overysse	-	-	-	50
Campenum	-	-	Campan, in Overysse	-	-	-	40
Schwolla	-	-	Swoll, in Overysse	-	-	-	23
Zutphania	-	-	Zutphen, in Guelderland	-	-	-	30
Arnhemia	-	-	Arnhem, in Guelderland	-	-	-	30
Bommelia	-	-	Bommel, in Guelderland	-	-	-	10
Thiela	-	-	Tiel, in Guelderland	-	-	-	10
Hardewicum	-	-	Harderwick, in Guelderland	-	-	-	30
Duisburgum	-	-	Duisburg, in the dutchy of Cleves	-	-	-	20
Staveira	-	-	Stavern, in Friesland	-	-	-	35
Groninga	-	-	Groningen, ditto, since a distinct province	-	-	-	35
Bolswerda	-	-	Bolswerd, in Friesland	-	-	-	30
Ruremunda	-	-	Ruremonde, in Guelderland	-	-	-	25
Venloa	-	-	Venloo, in Guelderland	-	-	-	20
Emericum	-	-	Emmerick, in the dutchy of Cleves	-	-	-	30
Osnabruga	-	-	Osnaburg, in Westphalia	-	-	-	30
Susatum	-	-	Soest, in Westphalia	-	-	-	35
Tremonia	-	-	Dortemunde, in Westphalia	-	-	-	30
Monasterium	-	-	Munster, in Westphalia	-	-	-	40
Vesalia	-	-	Wesel, in the dutchy of Cleves	-	-	-	50
Minda	-	-	Minden, in Westphalia	-	-	-	30
Paderborna	-	-	Paderborn, in Westphalia	-	-	-	20
Hervorda	-	-	Hervorden, in Westphalia	-	-	-	15
Lemgovia	-	-	Lemgow, in Westphalia	-	-	-	15
Lippestadium	-	-	Lipstadt, in Westphalia	-	-	-	10
Unna	-	-	Unna, in Westphalia	-	-	-	20
Hamma	-	-	Haum, in Westphalia	-	-	-	25
Warbergum	-	-	Warberg, in Westphalia	-	-	-	15
Bilefeld	-	-	Bielfeld, in Westphalia	-	-	-	10

In all, sixty-four cities and towns, whose annual contributions were two thousand and sixty-nine dollars for the common and ordinary expence of this confederacy; such as the salaries of necessary officers, charge of their general meetings, &c.

cities* contrived to avoid taking a part in wars against those sovereigns with whom they had any particular convention; and they made a jest of the threats of the others, from the perfect conviction that their importance and great riches must ever insure their safety. So many forms were necessary before any relief could be obtained from the league, that it generally came too late to produce a good effect; and even when granted, the delays were so great as to make it of very little avail when it arrived. If the relief demanded consisted in troops, they were ordered to be in readiness to march before the expiration of fourteen days. No city could declare war without the consent of the four nearest Hanse Towns; and it was the general assembly at Lubeck which decided whether the whole Hanseatic confederacy was to take a part in it. All these ceremonies must necessarily occasion the greatest inconvenience; for supposing Bruges to be attacked by an enemy, what a length of time must it require to implore assistance from the congress sitting at Lubeck, to wait its determination, to declare war, to make the requisite preparations, and to dispatch every thing that is necessary on such an occasion!

The acts of these different assemblies frequently admitted of exceptions; for instance, those held in 1443 did not include the whole of the Hanse Towns, not mentioning those in Westphalia, the Lower Rhine, the Low Countries, Prussia, and Livonia. One of the acts divides a part of the league into three circles, each of which has a capital, viz. Lubeck, Hamburgh, and Magdeburgh. Another act of the confederation passed in 1450, in which the

* Verdenhagen, vol. i. part iii. chap. 7, remarks, that the commerce of Hamburgh flourished extremely during the long wars between Lubeck, &c. and Denmark, particularly in those which took place from 1507 to 1516. Hamburgh owed this advantage to the neutrality she constantly preserved with Denmark.

towns to the north-east are not comprised, makes still another division, but equally into three circles, having for capitals, Lubeck, Magdeburgh, and Brunswick, collectively; and Munster, Deventer, Wesel, and Paderborn, alternately, according to circumstances. A third act adds a fourth circle, of which Dantzic was the capital. As to the act which prescribed an union of forces to repel the enemy, and which was constantly repeated in every assembly, it was at last considered as merely a matter of form*.

Though several towns frequently revolted against the decrees of these assemblies with impunity, there were others most severely punished for their disobedience. Brunswick affords a memorable example of this. Towards the end of the fourteenth century, it became the theatre of a most serious popular insurrection. The trading companies of that city, not contented with rebelling against the magistrates, putting some of them to death, and sending others into exile, contrived to induce many towns dependent on the league to follow their example.

The Dukes of Brunswick not thinking themselves sufficiently powerful to quell this revolt, dreaded the consequences; and fearing lest their authority should be called in question should they make an unsuccessful attempt, had recourse to the Hanseatics, who immediately issued out the most thundering decree against that city, forbidding every sort of communication between the inhabitants and the league, and depriving them of all the privileges they had hitherto enjoyed in common. Brunswick soon felt the effects of this severity. It's commerce was destroyed, it's manufactures forsaken, it's markets empty, and the

* It was even regarded in no other light in the assemblies of 1579, and 1604, though they were held purposely to renew the alliance of the Hanse Towns. See Krantz. Vand. lib. ix. chap. 7. and Cöring. de Urb. German, and Chytr. Chron. lib. xxiv.

common necessities of life no longer to be purchased. The distress became general, a dreadful famine ensued, and despair effected what reason and authority had attempted in vain. Tears and prayers succeeded to threats and imprecations. The inhabitants earnestly requested to be permitted to compromise the affair; but neither the avowal of their guilt, nor the proofs of their repentance, could give them the smallest hope of escaping the utmost severity of the law. They entreated the Emperor, Charles IV., who was then at Lubeck, to intercede in their behalf, and they sent deputies at different times to supplicate the congress sitting in that city. But it was long ere the members could be induced to relent, and not till after repeated solicitations that pardon was granted, and those privileges restored which Brunswick had been deprived of for six years. A punishment more humiliating than severe was annexed to this pardon. Two burgo masters, and eight of the principal citizens, were condemned to walk in procession bare headed, and bare footed, with a lighted taper in their hands, from St. Mary's church to the town-hall, where they were to confess their crime on their knees, in the great hall of the assembly of Lubeck, and to ask pardon for the sake of God and the Virgin Mary. They also promised; in the name of the burgesses of Brunswick, never to interfere for the future in any disputes which might take place in the senate, but to submit them entirely to the decision of the league. They engaged to erect a chapel in Brunswick, and to send pilgrims to Rome to solicit pardon for the murder of their magistrates*.

Let us for a moment suppose the league to be possessed of means to insure a speedy and full execution of all it's decrees,

* This punishment had not the expected effect, since, towards the end of the same century, a still more dangerous insurrection took place at Lubeck.

and even to have had such a constitution as gave a right to expect it's duration; yet still it would have been difficult to have resisted, for any length of time, the progress of the human understanding, and the advancement of civilization, which began to take place throughout Europe. And to these causes we may properly attribute it's ruin: since the sixteenth century was the epoch of it's decline, which was soon followed by the total annihilation of it's power.

We are at a loss to determine the true modern names answering to some of the old Latin names of towns in the *Matricula*; such as *Arnemunda*, or *Ornemunda*, which some take to be *Armuyden*, and others *Ruremonde*; so much is the writing of many Latin words or names confounded by time. The same may be said of some other names in the *Matricula*, which are therefore better omitted.

Besides these sixty-four towns, which were properly the only constituent parts of the Hanseatic confederacy, their historiographer gives us a further catalogue of forty-four more towns and cities, which were properly allies of this confederacy; though being exempted from annual contributions, he doubts whether they were in all respects to be esteemed Hanse Towns, or that they enjoyed all the privileges belonging to the four great comptoirs of the Hanse confederacy, which were *Bruges*, *London*, *Novogorod*, and *Bergen*. Their names are as follow:—*Dort*, *Amsterdam*, *Enkhuysen*, *Utrecht*, *Zirikzee*, *Briel*, *Middelburg*, *Wiringen*, *Hindloopen*, *Stendal*, *Halberstadt*, *Aschersleben*, *Erfurth*, *Noorthausen*, *Ulyssca*, i. e. *Lisbon*, *Stockholm*, *Meloin*, in *Prussia*, now utterly decayed, and some other towns of *Prussia* and *Livonia*; *Landsperg*, *Dinant*, *Maestrecht*, *Hasselt*, *Mulhausen* in *Alsace*, *Helmstadt*, *Northcim*, *Hall*, in *Saxony*, *Berlin*, *Brandenburg*, *Rugenwald*, *Serbst*, *Soltgueldt*, or *Saltwedden*, in

Brandenburg, Frankfort on the Oder, Oratistavia, i. e. Breslaw, Harlingen, Duderstede, Berga, i. e. Bergen in Norway, Wisburg, Lisle, Elburg, Inowyak, in Prussia, Embden, Kiel, Damburg, Armuyden, and Neostargard. All these, it is to be observed, have long been separated from any connexion with the Hanse Towns.

The Hanseatic league grew at length so considerable, that most of the chief trading cities of Europe joined in their confederacy, or were in alliance with them. Such were Antwerp, Rotterdam, Bruges, Ostend, and Dunkirk, in the Netherlands; Calais, Rouen, St. Maloes, Bourdeaux, Bayonne, and Marseilles, in France; Seville, Cadiz, and Barcelona, in Spain; Lisbon, in Portugal, Leghorn, Naples, and Messina, in Italy and Sicily; and London in England. But these were properly only a sort of allies in commerce, merely for the mutual safety and freedom of commerce and navigation; so that the identical number of seventy-two Hanse Towns, as proper members of, and contributors to that confederacy, though mentioned by all former historians, is too many by eight, as far as we can discover.

CHAP. VIII.

The different Commercial Establishments of the League fall by degrees.—The last General Assembly.—Bremen, Lubeck, and Hamburgh still represent the Hânse by the joint Consent of all the European Powers.—Utility of the Independence and Neutrality of these three Cities—Table of the usual Importation Trade of Hamburgh.—The Commerce with France more considerable in 1790 than that of all other Nations put together.—The Ruin of Hamburgh inevitable.

THE Emperor Charles V., who never befriended any association which did not tend to promote his ambitious projects, succeeded at last in depriving the Hanseatic league of almost the whole of it's influence in the empire; whilst several German princes, worn out by the tyranny exercised over their subjects, which frequently induced them to revolt, were but too happy to seize the first opportunity of throwing off the yoke, and taking the authority into their own hands, which they were determined for the future never to resign.

The advantages of commerce, and the riches it brought into those countries where it was freely carried on, appeared in so manifest a light to many other sovereigns, that they did every thing in their power to favor it amongst their subjects. They

formed trading companies, who widely extended their commerce; and some discovered a new Continent, where they founded colonies, and established factories.

The troubles which, for several centuries, had so cruelly disturbed the peace of England, being at length appeased, and Holland having become an independent state, these two countries vied with each other in encouraging the industry of their inhabitants, and in giving a free course to their rising commerce. It was also these countries which gave birth to those celebrated companies which afterwards rose to so high a degree of power, that it may be said with justice, they formed an empire within an empire*. One of the most antient, or, indeed, strictly speaking, the most antient of these companies, was termed the *Merchant Adventurers of England*, who traded on the coasts of the Baltic and the German ocean. So many different revolutions took place in the low countries, Holland, and other northern regions, that this company was frequently obliged to change its staples, which were sometimes more, sometimes less numerous, and were at last reduced to the city of *Hamburgh* alone, where it was then termed the *English Company of Hamburgh*†, and now forms the factory in that city, which is too well known in England, to make it necessary to enter into any particulars on the subject; I shall therefore content myself with giving a still slighter sketch of the decline and total ruin of the principal commercial establishments of the league, than what I have already traced of their origin, and rapid advancement.

* *Imperium in Imperio.*

† Notwithstanding which, all subsequent charters give it the antient name of *Company of Merchant Adventurers*, which most probably has been done to preserve some degree of consistency between the charters which granted the privileges, and those which confirmed them.

It was particularly essential to the Hanscatics to maintain their authority, and to preserve their monopoly in the north of Europe; yet, notwithstanding every possible endeavour, it was there they first began to fail, and it was likewise there where the most antient comptoir was first destroyed.

Ivan Wasilowitz, surnamed the Terrible, in 1494, put the Hanseatic merchants under arrest at Novogorod, took possession of their property, and afterwards confined a great number of them in Moscow. They were not, however, discouraged by this misfortune, but soon established a new comptoir at Revel, which was afterwards transferred to Narva; but the constant wars between Sweden and Russia prevented it from flourishing, and caused such frequent alarms, as forced them at length to abandon it.

The czar, Boris Gudenow, in 1603, and Demetrius, in 1620, were desirous of having new comptoirs established in their dominions, and expressed their wishes accordingly to the Hanseatics, whom they offered to reinstate in all their antient privileges; but the intestine divisions which destroyed the peace of Russia, rendered these offers of no avail, and prevented the league from reaping the advantages proposed to them by these sovereigns.

The comptoir of Bergen, which was once in so prosperous a state, that it had forty-eight chambers of Hanseatic merchants dependent on it, having each their agents, clerks, &c. became almost deserted in the reign of Christian III.; and in the beginning of that of Frederic II., it was reduced to only four chambers, which are still maintained by the cities of Lubeck, Hamburg, and Bremen, but without enjoying any particular privilege either for themselves, or for any of their commercial operations. Gustavus Vasa acted the same part in Sweden, as Frederic II. in Denmark, and broke through all the restraints under which

the commerce of his country had so long labored. The Hanseatics had very little reason to expect being thus stripped and humbled by those two sovereigns, who had been supported on the throne by their influence; and who had indeed been invested by them with the very power which enabled them to strike the fatal blow. Even the asylum which the Lubeckers had afforded Gustavus Vasa, in his younger days, when exiled from his country, contributed to their ruin; since the knowledge he then obtained of the nature of their commerce, and of the great advantage accruing from it, determined him to enlighten his people on this important subject, to point out to them their true interest, and to shut out his benefactors from his ports. This he soon did, on pretence that the Lubeck vessels detained by the Swedes, had been reclaimed with too much haughtiness*.

The Lubeckers had always been particularly formidable, since they alone made the last efforts to become masters of the Sound; (1533) and such were the troubles which agitated Denmark, that they would not have failed of success, had their allies stepped forth to their assistance. They even ventured to oppose Holland; and one of their squadrons cruising off Dantzic, meeting with two hundred sail of merchantmen belonging to that republic, laden with copper from Hungary, (which the Dutch at that time brought from Dantzic) they took sixty of these vessels, and either sunk or dispersed the remainder. These were not the first hostilities committed by the Hanse against the Dutch, who, having at first given up the Baltic trade to the maritime towns of Germany, began to envy the wealth it procured, and determined to share in such inestimable advantages. The desire of gain overcame every obstacle, and superseded every principle of the

* See Pontoppidan, *Norges, Beskr.* tom. ii. chap. 9.

common interest: a single moment was sufficient to make them break through the most antient treaties, and the most solemn engagements. The sovereigns who composed the union of the north, and particularly the King of Denmark, profited by the disunion of their most dangerous enemies, and the advantageous proposals made by the latter to the principal towns in Holland, Zealand, and West Friesland, were most eagerly accepted. This was followed by the almost immediate defection of Amsterdam, Middleburgh, Dort, and Rotterdam, with some other towns of less importance; all of which being separated from the Hanseatic confederation, the few which remained presently dropped off.

The first schism which took place in the league was towards the middle of the fifteenth century. All was then quiet in Flanders, till Maximilian of Austria, son-in-law and successor of Charles the Bold, one of the most powerful protectors of the Hansatics, began a most bloody war against the Flemings, and treated Bruges so severely, that it could no longer be regarded as the most flourishing market in Europe. The scattered remnants of the once-celebrated comptoir of Bruges, were united at Dort, and afterwards at Antwerp, where the sumptuous building*, which remains to this day, sufficiently attests it's former opulence.

The comptoir of London maintained it's original splendor some time longer, and was the last which fell to decay; since England, though queen of the ocean, was also the last power which threw off the tyranny of the league. (1552) Edward VI. had indeed greatly abridged the privileges of the steel-yard factory†;

* Called the House of the Osterlings.

† See Rapin Thoiras, who says this company was then suppressed, because it became prejudicial to England by engrossing all the cloth trade: it being proved in the course

but it was not till the reign of Queen Elizabeth that it was entirely abolished. The league being thus attacked on every side, and daily losing one or other of its most valuable possessions, lost that energy and that perfect union which, though not sufficient perhaps to prevent, would at least have delayed its ruin.

The whole expences of the confederation falling upon Lubeck, that city convoked a general diet, the result of which was its final dissolution. (1630) The deputies belonging to the different towns which had hitherto composed it, appeared altogether in that assembly, and produced letters which contained a formal renunciation on the part of those towns, and a declaration of their decided resolution no longer to make a part of it; upon which the cities of Bremen, Hamburgh, and Lubeck, determined to renew the league, and to represent it themselves. This plan succeeded so well, that all European sovereigns permitted these three cities to make treaties in common under the denomination of Hanse Towns; and likewise to send to the different nations where they also traded in common, agents, consuls, envoys, and ministers, who were admitted into those great assemblies which acknowledge, determine, and secure the political existence of the different states in Europe.

At the peace of Utrecht, between England and France, in the year 1713, many of the commercial privileges which formerly belonged to these three new Hanse Towns were discussed and renewed; and all the late emperors of Germany have acknowledged their prerogatives, and promised to maintain them.

When the definitive treaty of the indemnity of the empire took

of the year 1551, that the Hanscatics had exported 44,000 pieces of cloth, whilst all the English merchants together had only sold 1,100 out of the kingdom.

place in 1803, the interests of these three Hanse Towns were debated with great vehemence; all the different powers, and France in particular, were of one opinion relative to the utility of the Hanseatic association, the necessity of preserving it, and uniting it's existence with that of the empire.

France, which jointly with Russia dictated the articles of this treaty, was not contented with merely stipulating for the guarantee of the jurisdiction and territorial superiority of these towns, but also insisted on their perfect neutrality; a neutrality which was generally approved by all sovereigns, since every one reaped the greatest advantage from it. To give an idea of those powers which were more particularly interested in the preservation of this neutrality, I shall make a comparative statement of the commercial relation of every one of them with Hamburgh: I will not, however, make choice of those years which succeeded the French revolution, when commerce itself may properly be said to be likewise in a state of revolution; such a retrospect might probably be faulty: I will therefore fix upon the years 1789, 1790, and 1791; the first of which began peaceably, the second was passed tumultuously, and the third produced a revolution. This period appears to me to furnish the most exact and instructive account of the importation commerce of Hamburgh; the amount of which will be seen in the following table.

	1789.	1790.	1791.
	<u>French Livres.</u>		
France	50,349,584	50,146,130	41,947,652
Spain	4,952,256	5,539,320	10,274,674
Portugal	3,622,368	3,975,108	4,769,602
The Empire	2,020,126	1,987,188	2,558,520
Italy	1,088,390	1,162,218	1,505,480
England	14,297,892	14,058,786	16,438,040
Holland	8,596,530	8,918,514	9,014,112
Denmark	3,080,204	3,750,644	3,665,158
Sweden	1,097,012	1,276,472	1,423,312
Russia	1,392,072	985,854	1,309,178
Prussia	1,640,316	2,324,386	2,347,314
Courland	—	44,600	149,412
Dantzic	91,880	—	192,780
Rostock	230,640	111,450	407,390
Dutchy of Oldenburg	203,742	54,486	42,792
Bremen	545,268	804,268	782,354
United States	2,348,064	2,621,388	5,379,594
Upper Elbe	8,431,488	7,969,502	6,961,718
By Land from Lubeck	1,091,432	1,906,928	2,384,944
TOTAL	105,979,264	107,647,242	112,554,626*

It appears by this table, that the importation trade of Ham-
burgh with France amounted to 50,349,584 French livres in the
year 1789, and was reduced to 41,947,652 in 1791. What a
wonderful decrease in so short a space of time! and how much
greater must be the difference at present, when that power is de-
prived of it's colonies, and when it's navigation is at so very low

* Silk, linen cloth, copper, and tin, are not comprised in the above amount; since these articles are not subject to any inquiry, consequently there is no obligation to declare them.

an ebb! England presents a most striking contrast. The commerce of that country with Hamburg could never be compared to that of France; but it began to increase considerably; and the importation trade, which was only 14,297,892 French livres in 1789, amounted in 1791 to 16,438,040. It has since augmented beyond all calculation, and that for reasons which require no explanation*.

Next to France and England, no country was so much interested in this importation commerce as Holland; the Dutch had every reason to believe it would become still more considerable; and as to Spain, it had increased in the most astonishing manner, since in 1789 it only produced 4,952,256 French livres, which amounted to 10,274,674 in 1791. This last year the trade with Portugal had augmented more than a million, whilst that with the American United States, which was very trifling before, owed it's progress to the neutrality. Altona almost entirely monopolises the trade of Denmark: and the ports of Kiel, Altona, and the maritime towns in Prussia, being open to the countries of the Upper Elbe, their trade with Hamburg is very much diminished; for in 1789, it amounted to 8,431,048 French livres, and was reduced to 6,961,718 in 1791.

Sweden, Russia, and Prussia, traded principally amongst themselves, without entering the Elbe, consequently their commerce must have been inconsiderable indeed when compared with the above-mentioned countries. This statement clearly proves that the trade of Hamburg with France was infinitely

* The French colonies formerly furnished Hamburg annually with 36,000 hogsheds of sugar, and ten million pounds of coffee, which articles are now supplied by England. In the last war there were imported (on an average) forty-six million pounds of coffee annually into this city, which chiefly came from England and America; also about ninety-eight million pounds of sugar.

the most extensive: since it amounted, whilst at peace in the year 1789, to more than one half of the sum total produced by that of every other country.

Hamburg being so considerable a staple, received all kinds of merchandise intended to be sent to the north; and likewise all those from Germany destined principally for the south.

The statement given above of the importation commerce of this city in 1791, explains the kinds of merchandise of which it consisted. The article of linen cloth deserves particular attention, since it constituted the greatest branch of commerce at Hamburg, and in all the north of Germany. This now no longer exists, and England alone can make up the deficiency. It is well known, that Hamburg contained the greatest collection, not only of coarse linen of every kind, but of the most beautiful table linen, and the finest cloth, all of which must have fallen into the hands of the French, who certainly have never shared their booty with their allies, to whom these articles were intended to be sold, and who now must be under the necessity of purchasing them elsewhere.

The French armies have also laid waste Saxony, Lusatia, and Silesia, and destroyed the linen manufactures which supplied Hamburg; they have likewise, most probably, plundered the warehouses in these countries, and ruined this great branch of commerce; consequently the numerous artificers who owed their existence to the linen trade, must be the victims of this disastrous war, and that without the smallest advantage to the manufacturers of France. The French might, indeed, have reason to applaud the conduct of their generals, if by ruining the industry of other countries they had increased that of their own; but it has not yet appeared that France has reaped any benefit from such violent proceedings, since no new manufacture has been esta-

blished, nor are the antient ones become more flourishing. Neither has the dismantling their enemies' forts been of any advantage, and the leaving Hamburgh undefended and unprotected must inevitably deprive them of one of the first commercial cities in Europe; and those must be blind indeed, who do not perceive that Hamburgh is lost for ever. Whilst the Germanic body was in being, this city formed an integral part, consequently it's political and commercial existence was firmly attached to it; but since the dissolution of this body it has been left without support, and must soon fall to the ground. Unfortified as it is, and so situated that a French, Danish, or Prussian regiment might invade it in twenty-four hours, can it be expected that, in future, any country will send it's merchandise to an open staple, subject to every insult, and without any possible means of defence? Such has been the conduct of the French, that not only foreigners, but even their own merchants, will seek a receptacle for their immense riches in strong fortified places, defended by the most powerful armies.

CHAP. IX.

Departure from Hamburgh.—Road through Holstein.—The Elector of Hesse passes through Remel.—Arrival at Gottorp and Schleswig.—Emigrants from Prussia and Mecklenburgh, with the Princely Families of Orange, Brunswick, and Weimar take Refuge in these Towns.—Their Reception.—Departure from Schleswig.—Arrival at Husum.—Passage from thence to England.—Praises due to the Commander of an English Gun-Brig.

I was so perfectly aware of the fate which awaited Hamburgh, that no arguments could induce me to change my opinion; and my sole motive for remaining in that city till the 5th of November, was the pain I felt in quitting my friends; who, though they placed very little dependence on the faith of the French, nor believed they would respect the neutrality, still imagined that foreigners would meet with the same treatment as at Vienna, and that they might be suffered to remain quietly for the winter months, when they purposed returning to their native country.

My resolution once taken, I determined on removing to Schleswig, from whence I could easily proceed, either to Eng-

land* or Denmark, as circumstances might direct. I had formerly traveled this road, and did not find it greatly improved, though the villages and towns through which I passed are much enlarged, and several of them extremely beautified. Being unable to reach Rendsbourg the second night, before sun-set, when the gates are constantly shut, I stopped at Remel, where I was not a little surprised at hearing that the elector of Hesse was hourly expected at the post-house, the French having demanded, as a first proof of friendship, that the prince and his country should be delivered up entirely to their discretion, and to that of their allies. Astonished and justly incensed at so strange and unexpected a proposal, which unhappily was supported by an army of 40,000 men surrounding the capital, the prince courageously preferred risking an escape, difficult as it was, to the certainty of being detained in so dishonorable a manner. Disguised as a merchant, he contrived to pass through the only gate not yet occupied by soldiers, and hastened to reach the Castle of Gottorp, in which his brother granted him an asylum, together with a great part of the considerable personages, who had escaped the wreck of the North of Germany. I arrived at Schleswig a very few hours after the elector, and found great difficulty in procuring lodgings; for here, as I have had but too many opportunities of remarking elsewhere, human nature did not appear in a very advantageous point of view, and self-interest triumphed over sensibility, even in the presence of a prince celebrated for hospitality and benevolence.† His exam-

* *Humb.* from whence the packet-boats then sailed for England, is about sixteen English miles from Schleswig; and Fleunsbourg, near the Lesser Belt, is not quite so far.

† The Landgrave of Hesse, more generally known as Prince Charles of Hesse, has not only bestowed his benefactions on the country he is appointed to govern, but on all

ple, indeed, was very little followed in any part of Holstein, for few towns have been more benefited by the misfortunes of the times than Altona; and still fewer have testified so little compassion, and pillaged emigrants of every description so unmercifully. One woman in particular, though reputed rich, had the effrontery, a short time since, to offer part of her house for ninety-two golden Fredericks a month, (about seventy-seven pounds sterling) whilst another, when no one dared to receive the Duke of Brunswick at any price, gave up her habitation gratis to that unfortunate prince; how striking and how interesting a contrast! It seems indeed extraordinary that the inhabitants of Altona can possibly have forgotten the affecting and sublime address of the administrators of an Institution formed in that town, and in Hamburg, for the relief of the French and other emigrants. Nothing could be more calculated to inspire charity, and to fill the heart with the most pleasing sensations, at seeing such well-directed benevolence. So great indeed was the impression made upon me, that I flatter myself the reader will pardon this digression, and approve the translation of so interesting an harangue.

“ Ah! how eagerly do we wish (said the administrators) to communicate to your hearts the feelings of ours; and to inspire you with the same sentiments of compassion for so many wretched beings banished far from their native country, torn from their habits of life, and from the objects of their tenderest affections; abandoned by the world; wounded by the recollection of former events; worn out by anxiety; blushing at their unmerited mis-

those through which he has passed, or in which he had resided for any time. The French, and indeed all other emigrants, established at Gottorp or Schleswig, were pensioned from a fund under the auspices of this prince; and those merely traveling through these towns were enabled by the same means to pursue their journey.

fortunes ; ashamed to beg their bread ; and supporting such accumulated miseries from a sentiment of religion, which alone forbids their terminating their wretched existence. And yet, in this picture of all the woes which afflict humanity, what acts of generous self-denial, of heroic firmness, and affecting resignation, present themselves to view ! How nobly great in their simplicity do these old warriors appear, who suffer with the same courage they formerly displayed in the field ; and whose honor and religion will not permit them to breathe a single complaint ! How heart-rending to see that innocent child, abandoned by an unfortunate father, and thrown on the mercy of strangers, burst into tears on perceiving a fond mother caressing her infants, from the reflection, alas ! that *he* too was once happy enough to be pressed to the maternal bosom, from which he was now separated for ever !

“ With what affecting fidelity those old domestics attend their masters ! How laudable their conduct, in thus dedicating every moment of their existence to their antient benefactors, supporting them by the work of their hands, depriving themselves of common necessities for that purpose, and foregoing the ease and comfort they might enjoy in another service ! But ah ! how much more wounding to a feeling mind the piercing cries of that wretched woman, who, for two long days, could only answer by fruitless tears, four helpless infants craving for food ! How noble the filial piety and active courage of that other female, whose industry supports her aged father, and provides for the whole of a family which places its dependence on her alone ! These indeed are not the only objects we could name, deserving the esteem and pity of every worthy heart ; but, alas ! it would be far more easy to tire out your sensibility, than to exhaust the subjects we could urge to excite it.”

Schleswig, in the style of Altona, received the unfortunate fugitives from Prussia and Mecklenburgh, with the greatest indifference, showing little compassion for their sufferings, and taking advantage of their situation by making them pay exorbitantly for the most miserable lodgings. I myself was witness to a golden ducat a day, being asked for a single smoky room, twelve feet long by eight wide, with no other furniture than a shabby deal table, two rush-bottomed chairs, and a bed without curtains.

The post from Altona never entered Gottorp or Schleswig without bringing the most disastrous intelligence; and no day passed without my listening to the most affecting tales, or witnessing the most heart-rending scenes.

Thus situated, who could forbear admiring the noble demeanor, the fortitude and firm serenity displayed in the conduct and countenances of the Princesses of the Houses of Orange, Hesse, Brunswick, and Weimar? And yet, alas! every one of these distinguished persons had cause to deplore not only the loss of their dominions, but the absence or death of a father, husband, brother, or faithful friend, and servant. But in the midst of such distressing circumstances, the firm conviction that none of their relations or friends had failed in their duty, or forfeited the honor of their illustrious birth, softened their sufferings, and enabled them to appeal with confidence to the God of battles, whose mighty power could revive the laurels planted by their victorious hands, which even the late disastrous events could never wholly wither.

The safe arrival of my friends from Hamburgh filled my breast with the first pleasurable sensation I had experienced since our separation. Schleswig being too near the French, and too much crowded by strangers to make it a desirable residence, we re-

solved to quit it, and had no choice left but to return to England or proceed to Denmark. The season being far advanced, and it beginning to snow, it was necessary to determine immediately; and hearing that two packets were arrived at Husum, we lost no time in proceeding to that place, where we indeed found two fishing vessels, called smacks,* which had brought the mails from Harwich. There was also a gun-brig anchored in the river, and **nothing** can ever obliterate from my memory the kindness with which I was received by the captain, and the polite attentions he showed me, not only whilst I was on board his vessel, but till the moment I quitted Yarmouth for London.

Fifteen days of contrary winds, sudden storms, and violent tempests, detained us seventeen days on a passage usually made in four or five. During the whole of this time the captain employed every moment he could spare from the important post he occupied upon deck, in visiting and comforting those of his passengers who, unused to the sea, suffered cruelly from sickness. The females, on board, were encouraged by the calmness displayed in his countenance and conversation; whilst his courage and skill inspired his crew with equal confidence. The congratulations we received from the officers of the navy, when we arrived at Yarmouth, on having sailed with so experienced a seaman, gave me the most real pleasure; and still more so, as the testimony I here bear to his merit is not only the sentiments inspired by heart-felt gratitude, but those of the honorable corps to which he belongs.

* These boats are very strongly built, being constantly employed during winter, in fishing on the Dogger Bank. My friends embarked on board the largest, and notwithstanding the most dreadful tempests, such was the skill of the crew and the strength of the vessel, that they arrived at Yarmouth after a passage of sixteen days, without the boat having sustained the smallest injury.

Once more landed in the hospitable isle which afforded me shelter in the first shipwreck of my fortunes, and blessed in the society of my friends, I soon forgot the dangers which threatened me a second time; and now, under the auspices of the most magnanimous of monarchs, and in the midst of the happiest of people, I have ventured to relate, and that without bitterness or spleen, the dreadful events I have had the misfortune to witness, and to which I so narrowly escaped falling a victim.

APPENDIX.

No. I.

NAMES OF SOME CELEBRATED LITERATI

BORN AT HAMBURGH.

Gronovius (J. Fred.). A celebrated critic, born at Hamburgh in 1611. He published several editions of the works of antient authors; likewise, an excellent *Treatise de Sestertiis* — His son, *James Gronovius*, born at Deventer, where his father was professor of *belles lettres*, eclipsed, or rather added fresh lustre to his father's reputation.

Holstenius (Inc.). Librarian of the Vatican, died at Rome in 1661, aged 65. He was very learned in ecclesiastical antiquities; and published the *Life of Pythagoras*, by Porphyrius, with the *Life of Porphyrius* himself.

Krantzius (Albert). A celebrated historian for the age he lived in; since he died in 1517, aged 70. His most distinguished works are, *Chronicles of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway*; *History of Saxony*, in thirteen books; *History of the Vandals*; a book intitled *Metropolis*, in fourteen books; *Ecclesiastical History of Saxony, Westphalia, and Jutland*. This author is accused of plagiarism.

Lambecius (Peter). One of the most learned historiographers in Germany. His principal works are, *Origines Hamburgenses*, in 2 vols. in 4to., printed in 1652 and 1661; *Animadversiones ad Codini Origines Constantinopolitanas*, printed at Paris, 1665, in folio: this book is full of profound learning. *Lucubrationes Gallianae*, printed at Paris in 1647, in 4to.; a Latin Catalogue of the Imperial Library at Vienna, in 8 vols. folio, with a curious Commentary, but a little too prolix. He died at Vienna in 1680, aged 52.

Placcius (Vincent), died of an apoplexy in 1699, at the age of 57. Those who wish to have a list of his works may consult Father Niceron. His principal Latin work is a Collection of Anonymous and Pseudonymous Writings, printed at Hamburgh in 1674, in 4to. The second edition, by Matthias Dreager, in 1708, in folio, is more complete.

Kolsinck (Guernerius), called in Latin *Kolsincius*. A celebrated physician, who died at Jena in 1763, aged 44. He was the author of several works, the catalogue of which is in Lippenius and Manget. There is one still to be purchased on medicine, called *Dissertationes Anatomicae*, impr. Noribergae 1656, in 4to.

Wower (John), was governor of Gottorp, and died there in 1612, at the age of 38. He was the author of a very learned work, intitled, *De Polymathia Tractatio*, printed at Basle in 1603, in 4to. He also published, with Notes, Petronius, Apuleius, Sidonius, Apollinarius, and Minutius Felix. This author must not be confounded with his relation and namesake, the friend of Lipsius. That Wower died at Antwerp in 1635.

(*Nota bene*. Those who wish to be more particularly acquainted with the celebrated authors born at Hamburgh, and in the neighbourhood of that city, must consult *La Cimbria Literata* of T. Moellerius, in folio, Havniae, 1747; and, above all, Fabricius *Memoriae Hamburgenses*.)

This city has also given birth to some celebrated writers of natural history.

Steph. a Schonevelde was known as an author from 1591 till 1624. The following work is much esteemed: *Ichthyologia et Nomenclatura Animalium Marinorum, Fluviatilium, Lacustrium, quæ in Florentissimi Ducatus Slesvici et Holsatiæ et Cel. Emporio Hamburgo occurrunt tri- riales ac plerorumque hactenus desideratorum imagines, breves Descriptiones, et Explicationes Auctore Steph a Schonevelde, M. D. Cive Hamb. Hamb. 1624, 4to.*

Guernerius Rolsinckius, who has been mentioned above, died in 1673. Haller has a high idea of the learning of his work, intitled—*De Purgantibus Vegetabilibus*, printed at Jena. His other publications are not deficient in merit: These are—*De Vegetabilibus, Plantis Suffruticibus, et Arboribus in genere*, Lib. II., Jenæ, 1670, in 4to.; and *Chymia in Artis formam redacta*, Jenæ, 1660, in 4to. Rolsinckius was the first professor of chemistry they ever had in Germany.

P. M. Schlegel died in 1653. His harangue made at Jenæ is much admired, beginning thus: *Utrum liceat medicis tanta muliercularum ignorantia grassante obstetricum opera defungi*. This is published in the *Cimbria Literata* of Jo. Moellerus, tom. i. p. 636. Havniæ, 1744, 3 vols. in folio.

Jungius (Joach.). Linnæus has given his name to a plant lately brought from North America, as a compliment to his merit and his profound knowledge of natural history. He has left behind him some very valuable works; amongst which are—*Jourh Jungii Dioscopiæ Physicæ minores in quæ præcipuæ Opinionēs in Physicæ passim receptæ breviter quidem sed accuratissimè Examinantur; ex Recensione Mart. Fogelii, imp. Hamb. 1662, in 4to; — Joach Jung. Isagoge Phytoscopiæ recensenti Jo. Vagetio, Hamb. 1678; — Joach Jungii Mineralia, Hamb. 1689, in 4to. — Joach Jungii Historia Vermium (Insectorum) obstetricante — Jo Garmers, Hamb. 1691, in 4to.*

Mart. Fogel, who died in 1675, and *Jo. VATEGIUS*, disciples of *Joach. Jungius*, and editors of his works. Several manuscripts of *Joach. Jungius* were consumed when *Vategius's* library was burned on the 25th of May 1691: one only escaped from the flames, which treated on wasps and bees.

Freder. Martens. His travels and description of *Spitzbergen*, printed at *Hamburg* in 1625, in 4to., with engravings, is an esteemed work; which has been translated into Italian, printed at *Bologna*, 1683, in duodecimo. It was published in Dutch at *Amsterdam* in 1686, in 4to.; in English in 1695, in octavo; and in French at *Amsterdam*. A Collection of Travels into the North, published in 1716, in duodecimo. The first part contains a mere historical account of the country; the second, a description of the country; the third, a description of the plants; and the 4th, a description of the animals of *Spitzbergen*; the birds, quadrupeds, testaceous, and other fish, and whales. His observations on these different objects are much admired by *Linnaeus*.

Kerckring (Theod.) died in 1693. He was a doctor of medicine, much celebrated for his anatomical preparations.

The following Naturalists of *Hamburg* have published some very estimable works.

J. Anderson.

Barth. Heiner Brookes.

*Herm. Sam. Reimar*us, died in 1768

Joach. Frid. Bolten.

*Jo. Alb. Heinz Reimar*us.

Jo. Heinz. Dan. Moldenhawer.

Chr. Sam. Ulbers Partor, died in 1776.

Ch. Ph. Chr. Sturm, 1777.

Jo. Pet. Gericke.

N. B. These particulars, relative to the naturalists of Hamburgh, is taken from the following publication : —

DISSERTATIO SOLEMNIS
HISTORICO — LITTERARIA
DE
MERITIS HAMBURGENSIIUM
IN
HISTORIAM NATURALEM.

QUAM

ANNUENTE DEO. T. O. M.

PRESIDE

VIRO EXPERIENTISSIMO DOCTISSIMO

PAULO DIETERICO GISEKE, M. D.

PHYS. ET POET. PROF. P. ET BIBLIOTHECARIO SECUNDO ACAD. IMP. NATURÆ, CURIOS.

ALIARUMQUE SODALI AD D. XXIX MARTII MDCCXCII

PULICE DEFENDET

PATRIÆ VALEDICTURUS

CHRISTIANUS PHILIPPUS RIPPHE. HAMB. THEOL. STUD.

AUCTOR CIVIS GYMNASII.

HAMBURG!

Typis C. W. Meyer, amplissimi Senatus Gymnasii et Johannei.

TYPOGRAPHI.

No. II.

SKETCH OF A PLAN PROPOSED BY GENERAL POMMEREUIL,

FOR THE

AGGRANDISEMENT OF THE FRENCH REPUBLIC;

SINCE LITERALLY EXECUTED BY BONAPARTE

A SMALL pamphlet, intitled, *Vues Générales sur l'Italie, Malthe, &c.*, known to be written by General Pommereuil, and published at Paris (*Vendémiaire*) *an 6 de la république*, contains the following expressions and remarks:—

1st. Division of Italy, and establishment of small federative republics, changed at present into principalities, dutchies, &c., feudatories of the French empire. (The term republic is out of fashion.)

2d. The title of emperor of Germany, and the German empire itself, suppressed.

3d. An order to the pope to quit Rome, pronounced in the following terms (page 12.): "The pope shall leave Rome, which shall no longer be considered as the constant residence of the popes and cardinals." The republic will however agree, "that they shall exercise elsewhere the functions with which they imagine themselves charged." (Page 13.) "The French republic and the pope existing at the same time in Rome would be a phenomenon." (Page 12.) After asking the following question—"Is it the interest of the French republic to extend it's limits to the banks of the Rhine?" it is added—"Let us then fix the boundaries of France on the Rhine."

4th. (Page 69.) "The limits of France are those of antient Gaul."

5th. (Page 69.) "Switzerland was comprised in antient Gaul; but the French republic, as an ally, will be contented to divide the empire of Gaul with the Swiss: and, having both the same origin, they must now regard one another doubly as brethren."

6th. (Page 81.) "The French republic ought to maintain a balance of power with the northern states, which can only be done by conquering from those states in proportion as they themselves conquer from a third power." Poland.

7th. (Page 88.) "It is necessary that Poland should be restored to it's primitive state before the French republic can be justified in relinquishing the smallest part of it's conquests towards the North."

8th. (Page 90.) "Here the question seems to be asked, Whether the republic can preserve these conquests? France possesses them, and preserves them."

9th. (Page 9.) "Where then is the difficulty of keeping possession of conquests, when the enemy is too weak to force us to restore them?"

Let us now examine a little into the conduct of Bonapartè.

Has he not, in every particular, literally followed the plan traced by General Pommereuil?

Has he not parceled out Italy into principalities, dutchies, &c., and adopted the same system in Dalmatia, Germany, &c.

Has he not succeeded in suppressing the title of emperor of Germany and destroying the Germanic body?

Has he not tried to banish the pope and cardinals from Rome, and even commanded some of the latter to quit that city*?

Has he not placed the limits of France not only on, but even beyond the banks of the Rhine?

Has he not, towards the Alps, taken in all, nay, more than the territory of antient Gaul, and added it to the French empire?

* When the French government first proposed to the pope to quit Rome, an Italian, who held a distinguished place in the church, and was perfectly well acquainted with all that passed on this subject, said to the French, "Even your rascally Abbé Maury is of opinion, that the pope's residence ought never to be changed."

Has he not fraternised (the revolutionary term) Switzerland, as making part of new Gaul?

Has he not also most fraternally invested Holland with royalty?

Is not Gaul become an empire?

Has the protector of the confederacy of the Rhine any other apparent function, than to establish reciprocally a balance of power between the northern powers?

Is he not now attacking Poland? Has he given up the smallest part of his conquests, and does he not make every effort in his power to prevent the possibility of their being retaken by his enemies?

Can any one possibly deny that his conduct towards Prussia and Russia is the full completion of Pommereuil's plan? a plan which ought to be engraved in indelible characters on the walls of the different cabinets in Europe.

No. III.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE SHOWS THE HOURS
 THE CITY GATES OF HAMBURG ARE OPENED AND SHUT
 THROUGHOUT THE YEAR.

(SEE THE PICTURE OF HAMBURG, P. 170.)

	Morning.	Evening.
From January 1 till January 42,	8 h.	4½ h.
————— 13 ————— 22,	7½	4½
————— 23 ————— 31,	7½	4½
From Feb. 1 till Feb. 8,	7½	5
————— 9 ————— 16,	7	5½
————— 17 ————— 23,	6½	5½
————— 24 till March 3,	6½	5½
From March 4 ————— 10,	6½	6
————— 11 ————— 17,	6	6½
————— 18 ————— 24,	5½	6½
————— 25 ————— 31,	5½	6½
From April 1 till April 7,	5½	7
————— 8 ————— 14,	4½	7½
————— 15 ————— 20,	4½	7½
————— 21 ————— 26,	4½	7½
————— 27 till May 4,	4½	8
From May 5 ————— 15,	4½	8½
————— 16 ————— 31,	4½	9
From June 1 till June 30,	4½	9½
From July 1 till July 13,	4½	9½
————— 14 ————— 26,	4½	9
————— 27 till August 10,	4½	8½
From August 11 ————— 20,	4½	8
————— 21 ————— 27,	4½	7½
————— 28 till Sept. 7,	4½	7½

APPENDIX.

		Morning.	Evening.
From Sept.	4 till Sept. 9,	5	7½
—————	10 ————— 15,	5½	7
—————	16 ————— 21,	5½	6¾
—————	22 ————— 28,	5½	6½
—————	29 till October 5,	6	6½
From October	6 ————— 12,	6½	6
—————	13 ————— 20,	6½	5½
—————	21 ————— 28,	6½	5½
—————	29 till Nov. 5,	7	5½
From Nov.	6 ————— 14,	7½	5
—————	15 ————— 23,	7½	4¾
—————	24 ————— 30,	7½	4½
From Dec.	1 till Dec. 9,	8	4½
—————	10 ————— 31,	8	4

No. IV.

POPULATION OF HAMBURGH.

(SEE THE PICTURE OF HAMBURGH, P. 39 AND 85.)

THE five parishes take their names from the five head churches, and each contains as follows :

	Houses.	Cellars.	Sables*.	Markets.	Churches.
St. Peter's	1180	440	1580	3	4
St. Nicholas	1000	343	560	1	3
St. Catherine	1100	263	1690	0	1
St. James	2600	974	1494	2	2
St. Michael	5400	650	4600	3	2
Total	11280	2070	9524	9	12

N. B. The rent of the whole is estimated at about 7,200,000 marks banco, shared among about five thousand proprietors.

The population of the whole territory of Hamburg amounts to about 130,000 souls, of whom 100,000 are reckoned within the walls, including St. George's and Hamburg Berg.

Of this number about 17,000 are Jews.

* These are to be understood floors, some of which contain three, four, or five rooms.

The inhabitants may properly be divided into five classes, proportionate to the number of dwellings, viz.

First, The literati, under which are considered pastors, professors, physicians, and lawyers, about	-	-	-	-	-	100
Second, Merchants	-	-	-	-	8	12
Third, Manufacturers and handicraftsmen	-	-	-	-	-	28
Fourth, Brokers who live entirely by that profession	-	-	-	-	-	32
Fifth, Shopkeepers	-	-	-	-	-	2
Work people, porters, watchmen, watermen, &c. make up the rest.						

No. V.

A TABLE OF EXCHANGE.

(SEE THE PICTURE OF HAMBURGH, P. 139—140.)

THE following Exchange Table is adapted for the use of such persons who may not be very conversant in exchange operations. It exhibits, at one view, the value in marks banco, of one, five, ten, and one hundred pounds sterling, at the different variations of the course of exchange, which are from 30 to 39 sch. Flem. The par, or medium course, is 35 sch. 6½ ph. Flem. per pound sterling.

To find the value, in banco marks, of one pound.

Multiply the course of exchange by 6, reckoning 12 ph. per sch. Flem., and divide the product by 16, without reducing the remainder.

Example. What is £1 sterling worth in banco marks, when the exchange is at 34 sch. 7 ph. Flem.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 34 \quad 7 \\
 6 \text{ M. Sch. D.} \\
 \hline
 16 \quad) \quad 207 \quad 6 \quad (\quad 12 \quad 15 \quad 6 \\
 \quad \quad 10 \quad \quad \text{Answer.} \\
 \hline
 \quad \quad 47 \\
 \quad \quad 32 \\
 \hline
 \text{Rem.} \quad 15 \text{ Sch.}
 \end{array}$$

TABLE.

Course of Ex.		£1 Sterling		£5 Sterling		£10 Sterling		£100 Sterling	
Sch.	Flem. D.	M. Sch. D.		M. Sch. D.		M. Sch. D.		M. Sch. D.	
29	1	10 14 6		54 8 6		109 1 0		1090 10 0	
29	2	10 15 0		54 11 0		109 6 0		1093 12 0	
29	3	10 15 6		54 13 6		109 11 0		1096 14 0	
29	4	11 0 0		55 0 0		110 0 0		1100 0 0	
29	5	11 0 6		55 2 6		110 5 0		1103 2 0	
29	6	11 1 0		55 5 0		110 10 0		1106 4 0	
29	7	11 1 6		55 7 6		110 15 0		1109 6 0	
29	8	11 2 0		55 10 0		111 4 0		1112 8 0	
29	9	11 2 6		55 12 6		111 9 0		1115 10 0	
29	10	11 3 0		55 15 0		111 14 0		1118 12 0	
29	11	11 3 6		56 1 6		112 3 0		1121 14 0	
30	0	11 4 0		56 4 0		112 8 0		1125 0 0	
30	1	11 4 6		56 6 6		112 6 0		1127 2 0	
30	2	11 5 0		56 9 0		113 2 0		1131 4 0	
30	3	11 5 6		56 11 6		113 7 0		1134 6 0	
30	4	11 6 0		56 14 0		113 12 0		1137 8 0	
30	5	11 6 6		57 0 6		114 1 0		1140 10 0	
30	6	11 7 0		57 3 0		114 6 0		1143 12 0	
30	7	11 7 6		57 5 6		114 11 0		1146 14 0	
30	8	11 8 0		57 8 0		115 0 0		1150 0 0	
30	9	11 8 6		57 10 6		115 5 0		1155 2 0	
30	10	11 9 0		57 13 0		115 10 0		1156 4 0	
30	11	11 9 6		57 15 6		115 15 0		1159 6 0	
31	0	11 10 0		58 2 0		116 0 0		1162 8 0	
31	1	11 10 6		58 4 6		116 9 0		1165 10 0	
31	2	11 11 0		58 7 0		116 14 0		1168 12 0	
31	3	11 11 6		58 9 6		117 3 0		1171 14 0	
31	4	11 12 0		58 12 6		117 18 0		1175 0 0	
31	5	11 12 6		58 14 6		117 13 0		1178 2 0	
31	6	11 13 0		59 1 0		118 2 0		1181 4 0	
31	7	11 13 6		59 3 6		118 17 0		1184 6 0	
31	8	11 14 0		59 6 0		118 12 0		1187 8 0	
31	9	11 14 6		59 8 6		119 1 0		1190 10 0	
31	10	11 15 0		59 11 0		119 6 0		1193 12 0	
31	11	11 15 6		59 13 6		119 11 0		1196 14 0	
32	0	12 0 0		60 0 0		120 0 0		1200 0 0	
32	1	12 0 6		60 2 6		120 5 0		1203 2 0	
32	2	12 1 0		60 5 0		120 10 0		1206 4 0	
32	3	12 1 6		60 7 6		120 15 0		1209 6 0	
32	4	12 2 0		60 10 0		121 4 0		1212 8 0	
32	5	12 2 6		60 12 6		121 9 0		1215 10 0	

Course of Ex.

Flem.		£1 Sterling			£5 Sterling			£10 Sterling			£100 Sterling		
Sch.	D.	M.	Sch.	D.	M.	Sch.	D.	M.	Sch.	D.	M.	Sch.	D.
32	6	12	3	0	60	15	0	121	14	0	1218	12	0
32	7	12	3	6	61	1	6	122	3	0	1221	14	0
32	8	12	4	0	61	4	0	122	8	0	1225	0	0
32	9	12	4	6	61	6	6	122	13	0	1228	2	0
32	10	12	5	0	61	9	0	123	2	0	1231	4	0
32	11	12	5	6	61	11	6	123	7	0	1234	6	0
33	0	12	6	0	61	14	0	123	12	0	1237	8	0
33	1	12	6	6	62	0	6	124	1	0	1240	10	0
33	2	12	7	0	62	3	0	124	6	0	1243	12	0
33	3	12	7	6	62	5	6	124	11	0	1246	14	0
33	4	12	8	0	62	8	0	125	0	0	1250	0	0
33	5	12	8	6	62	10	6	125	5	0	1253	2	0
33	6	12	9	0	62	13	0	125	10	0	1256	4	0
33	7	12	8	6	62	15	6	125	15	0	1259	6	0
33	8	12	10	0	63	2	0	126	4	0	1262	8	0
33	9	12	10	6	63	4	6	126	9	0	1265	10	0
33	10	12	11	0	63	7	0	126	14	0	1268	12	0
33	11	12	11	6	63	9	6	127	2	0	1271	14	0
34	0	12	12	0	63	12	0	127	8	0	1275	0	0
34	1	12	12	6	63	14	6	127	13	0	1278	2	0
34	2	13	13	0	64	1	0	128	2	0	1281	4	0
34	3	12	13	6	64	3	6	128	7	0	1284	6	0
34	4	12	14	0	64	6	0	128	12	0	1287	8	0
34	5	12	14	6	64	8	6	129	1	0	1290	10	0
34	6	12	15	0	64	11	0	129	6	0	1293	12	0
34	7	12	15	6	64	13	6	129	11	0	1296	14	0
34	8	13	0	0	65	0	0	130	0	0	1300	0	0
34	9	13	0	6	65	2	6	130	5	0	1303	2	0
34	10	13	1	0	65	5	0	130	10	0	1306	4	0
34	11	13	1	6	65	7	6	130	15	0	1309	6	0
35	0	13	2	0	65	10	0	131	4	0	1312	8	0
35	1	13	2	6	65	12	6	131	9	0	1315	10	0
35	2	13	3	0	65	15	0	131	14	0	1318	12	0
35	3	13	3	6	66	1	6	132	3	0	1321	14	0
35	4	13	4	0	66	4	0	132	8	0	1325	0	0
35	5	13	4	6	66	6	6	132	13	0	1328	2	0
35	6	13	5	0	66	9	0	133	2	0	1331	4	0
35	7	13	5	6	66	11	6	133	7	0	1334	6	0
35	8	13	6	0	66	14	0	133	12	0	1337	8	0
35	9	13	6	6	67	0	6	134	1	0	1340	10	0
35	10	13	7	0	67	3	0	134	6	0	1343	12	0
35	11	13	7	6	67	5	6	134	11	0	1346	14	0
36	0	13	8	0	67	8	0	135	0	0	1350	0	0
36	1	13	8	6	67	10	6	135	5	0	1353	2	0

Course of Ex.

Flem.		£1 Sterling		£25 Sterling		£10 Sterling		£100 Sterling	
Sch. D		M. Sch. D		M. Sch. D.		M. Sch. D.		M. Sch. D	
36	2	13 9 0		67 13 0		135 10 0		1356 4 0	
36	3	13 9 6		67 15 6		135 15 0		1359 6 0	
36	4	13 10 0		68 2 0		136 4 0		1362 8 0	
36	5	13 10 6		68 4 6		136 9 0		1365 10 0	
36	6	13 11 0		68 7 0		136 14 0		1368 12 0	
36	7	13 11 6		68 9 6		137 3 0		1371 14 0	
36	8	13 12 0		68 12 0		137 8 0		1375 0 0	
36	9	13 12 6		68 14 6		137 13 0		1378 2 0	
36	10	13 13 0		69 1 0		138 2 0		1381 4 0	
36	11	13 13 6		69 3 6		138 7 0		1384 6 0	
37	0	13 14 0		69 6 0		138 12 0		1387 8 0	
37	1	13 14 6		69 8 6		139 1 0		1390 10 0	
37	2	13 15 0		69 11 0		139 6 0		1393 12 0	
37	3	13 15 6		69 13 6		139 11 0		1396 14 0	
37	4	14 0 0		70 0 0		140 0 0		1400 0 0	
37	5	14 0 6		70 2 6		140 5 0		1403 2 0	
37	6	14 1 0		70 5 0		140 10 0		1406 4 0	
37	7	14 1 6		70 7 6		140 15 0		1409 6 0	
37	8	14 2 0		70 10 0		141 4 0		1412 8 0	
37	9	14 2 6		70 12 6		141 9 0		1415 10 0	
37	10	14 3 0		70 15 0		141 14 0		1418 12 0	
37	11	14 3 6		71 1 6		142 3 0		1421 14 0	
38	0	14 4 0		71 4 0		142 8 0		1425 0 0	

Current money is inferior to banco. This difference in value is called agio, which varies from 19 to 22 per cent.

It may, on an average, be considered nearly in the proportion of 5 to 6, in estimating banco in currency, and of 6 to 5, in estimating currency in banco.

By the following table, bank money may be reduced to currency, with greater exactness.—Multiply the factor or number opposite the agio, by the banco money, and cut off six figures to the right hand, the figures on the left will be the marks current; then multiply the six figures on the right hand by 16, and cut off six as before; those on the left will be shillings; multiply these six on the right by 12, and cut off as before, it will give the pence, &c.

TABLE.

Agio.	Factor.
19 Per cent. .	1,193,000
19½	1,195,000
20	1,200,000
20½	1,205,000
21	1,210,000
21½	1,215,000
22	1,220,000

EXAMPLE.

What current money is equal to 100 marks, 8 sch. banco,agio at 21½ per cent.?

1,215,000
100 8
<hr/>
121,500,000
6,075,000
<hr/>
122,100,500
16
<hr/>
1,720,000
12
<hr/>
8,640,000

Answer, 122m. 1sh. 8ph.

Hamburg draws on

London	at usance, viz. 2 months
Amsterdam,	at any number of weeks
Paris,	at 2 usances
Bordeaux,	ditto
The Empire in general,	at 14 days sight
Li-bon, Cadiz, Gibraltar,	at 3 months
Malaga,	ditto
Venice,	ditto
Leghorn,	ditto

N.B. Bills on Hamburg have 12 days' grace, Sundays, holidays, and the day it falls due, included.

No. VI.

DESCRIPTION OF THE
PRINCIPAL CHURCHES IN HAMBURGH;
WITH AN ACCOUNT OF
THE PICTURES AND MONUMENTS THEREIN.

(SEE THE PICTURE OF HAMBURGH, P. 64—79.)

AMONG the public buildings, the five parish churches are the most conspicuous; they are in general of brick, and of Gothic structure.

St. Peter's on the Berg, near the Dohm cathedral, is the most antient. The steeple, which was completed in 1516, is 416 feet high: in it are seven bells, the largest of which weighs 11,600lb. The font of this church is curiously wrought in marble, and the organ is remarkable for it's size. Near the entrance, on the south side, is a good painting of the Resurrection, and a well-sculptured image of the Virgin Mary with the infant Jesus in her arms. Opposite to the organ are the statues of Martin Luther, and Frederic, Elector of Saxony. The former has this inscription — *Pestis eram vivus moriens ero mors tua papa*. On the north side of the altar, behind the chancel, is a good perspective view of Ham-burgh, as it appeared in the 15th century. In the fore-ground is a groupe of knights, bishops, &c. going in procession to meet the ambas-sador of the pope in 1464. Near the font is another view of the city, as it was in 1250; and, on the right, is Christ on the cross, and the Virgin Mary, carved in wood; near to it, is the city of Jerusalem.

St. Nicholas, at the Hopfenmarkt, has a handsome steeple, which was erected in 1657, the old one having been burned by lightning. The spire stands on eight large gilt globes, or balls, of seven feet diameter, fixed on the tower, and is four hundred feet high. Here are chimes which play during half an hour at six and ten o'clock. The altar-piece is very neat.

On entering the church, you see near the organ a bust of St. Jerome; and behind, against the north wall, is a fine perspective, by Gabriel Angelo — *Dignum laude virum fama vetat mori*. On the right of the pulpit is a representation of the Deluge, with the ark on the waters. On the left is a picture of the Resurrection.

St. Catherine's, behind the English house, and near the English and Dutch post offices, is a stately building. The steeple is 390 feet high, and was erected in 1658, by the same architect who built that of St. Nicholas, the first steeple being blown down. The middle of the spire is encircled by a large coronet of gilt copper. The choir and altar-piece are very fine, and worthy attention.

Near the chancel is a good painting of the Judgement of Solomon. On a pillar, on the north side, is an antient piece of sculpture, representing the Virgin Mary, with an angel standing by her, and a unicorn with it's head resting on her lap, as if soliciting protection from a pack of hounds, who are pursuing it. Over the door, on the north side, is the representation of the drowning of Pharaoh in the Red Sea. On a pillar, opposite to this, is a good painting of the Derision of Christ, and another of the Burial of Christ: this last is, perhaps, the most complete piece of painting in the whole city. The organ of St. Catherine's is considered inferior to none in Europe; it consists of six thousand pipes, and was four years in building, by the same artist who erected that in the cathedral of Strasburg.

St. Jacobus (St. James), between the Pferdemarkt and the Steinstrasse, is nearly of the same model as the former. The steeple was erected in 1580, and is 370 feet high *. On entering, on the north side, there are

* The steeples of all the churches are of wood, covered over with copper.

several portraits of eminent men, among which is that of Martin Luther. Over the door, on the south side, is a *baso-relievo* of the Burial of Christ; and, on the same side, there is a good painting of Abraham offering up his son Isaac. The chancel is decorated with several marble figures. The font and organ are both worthy of notice.

Great St. Michael's, near the Altona gate, and the Grossen Neumarkt, is by far the largest and most elegant building in Hamburgh. The first stone of the present church was laid June 29, 1751, on the site of the former, which was destroyed by lightning the preceding year. It is of an octagonal form. The inside is elegant, with a superb font, chancel, and altar. The organ is remarkable for it's size and beauty.

The steeple is not on the plan of those of the other churches, but it is the most conspicuous, standing on an eminence; and the height, from the ground to the weather-cock, is 356 feet. Near the top is a gallery, with winding stairs leading to the cupola. To this gallery you ascend by 565 steps. From hence is a fine prospect of the city; and Lubeck and Lunenburg, which are near thirty English miles distant, may be discovered in fair weather.

OF THE LESSER CHURCHES.

THESE are St. Johannis, St. Mary Magdalen, Heilegeist, St. Gertrude, St. Paul, and St. George, which last is a parish of itself without the Stein-gate.

St. Johannis is on the north side of Johannis-strasse, near the cloister of that name. During two centuries it was occupied by the Dominican friars; at their dissolution it remained for a long time unoccupied. This church contains a variety of ancient monuments and pictures. Near the entrance at the south door, on the right, is a cupboard with folding-doors, in which the Virgin Mary, with the infant Jesus in her left arm, stands on a globe, round which is written *Credo*. There are also sixteen other figures, some popes, kings, &c.

Upon one of the doors of the cupboard, inside, is a flying genius, on

the point of throwing a dart against a globe, on which Haniburgh is represented. Under this, Christ is kneeling with a cross, upon which is a flag flying with the words—**Vader, Dorch minen Doot, ick bidde vor des Sunders Not** : i. e. *Father, have pity on the sins of man, in my death.* On the other door, Christ is looking at the city, with a dagger in his hand, and Mary on her knees, with her hand on her breast, and a flag over her head, with these words—**Sone se en mine Borst, vorbarm dick over den Sinder, Du Hemmel Vorste.** i. e. *Son, behold my breast; have pity on sinners, thou Prince of heaven.*

In another cupboard, on the same side, is the representation of two hills covered with men. The valley between them is separated by sharp-pointed pallisadoes, on which many men seem to be spiked and expiring. These, they say, were one thousand Christian knights, who, under the Emperors, Adrian and Antoninus, suffered martyrdom.

Against a pillar opposite to the choir is an *Ecce Homo*, a good painting; and on the north wall, is Abraham offering up his son Isaac. The latter would be a tolerable piece, if the expression of Abraham's countenance and his attitude were more natural. Underneath this is a cobbler's stall, and at the door stand two figures of St. Crispin; one of them holds a shoe, the other a boot in his hand. In the west corner is a picture by Angelo, and the Good Samaritan by another artist. At the west door is the Last Judgement. This represents a great crowd of persons, in the midst of whom is a nun, sitting on a wheelbarrow, with a beer-jug in her hand; a dark brown devil is pushing her to hell; at the mouth of which another fiend stands with open claws to receive her. Near this, amongst many curious figures, are some kranhziickers, drawing a dray, and over their heads is written **Und God sprack, laat uns menschen macken.** i. e. *And God said, Let us make man.* What could give rise to such a device is not easy to guess.

St. Mary Magdalen's church stands between Johannis-strasse and the Dreckwall. Against the west wall are two pictures of the founder of this church, Adolphus IV., one in armor, with a sword and spear; the

¹ These inscriptions are in old Low German.

other represents him lying dead in his coffin. On the South-side are some curious paintings. The altar-piece is surrounded by a number of pictures; among which are, Christ descending into hell; and Sampson carrying the city gates away: There is also a piece representing the Trinity, in which the first person is an old man, the second a lamb, and the third, a dove, attended by an angel.

Another painting represents Hell; in which several persons, of both sexes, seem to be laid before the fire to be roasted, and as they roast, some hungry monsters seem to devour them.

The other churches have nothing worthy of notice.

THE DOHM CATHEDRAL.

THE Dohm, being one of the most ancient churches in Europe, contains many curious pieces of antiquity and monuments; amongst which are to be remarked.

1st. In a chapel on the North-side is a very handsome monument, erected in 1666, to commemorate the cruel persecutions of the Papists. At about ten feet from the base, on each side, stands a knight with a spear in his hand, on the point of piercing a female through the heart. About six feet higher, on the left side, is an angel with wings expanded, and an hour-glass in each hand. On the right-side, opposite, is a delicate female figure; and between them are two infants. At the top of the whole is Christ descending with an infant on each side of him:—

Under the bottom of the monument is written: *Plus meruit gratia, Christi, quam nocuit peccatum.*

2d. Towards the east-side of the church, is a statue of Anscarius, first Archbishop of Hamburgh; he has a mitre on his head, and holds the tower of the cathedral in his left-hand; the right-hand, in which was the episcopal staff, is broken off.

3d. Benedict V., who being elected to the Holy-see in opposition to Leo VIII., was arrested and brought to Hamburgh, where he died. The inscription on his monument runs thus: *†Benedictus Papa de sede apostolica per violentiam remotus postea revocaretur, obiit Hamburgi.*

4th. The Virgin Mary with Christ in her arms.

5th. On a pillar, not far from Anscarius, is Albertus Cranzius, the historian, who died here in 1517. Over this hangs a pair of boots, of very antient mode, and of curious workmanship, having no visible seam in them; on which account, the vulgar give it out that they were manufactured by the devil.

6. On the south wall, opposite to Anscarius, is a stone, on which the figure of an ass is carved in a dancing attitude, playing on a pair of bagpipes, with the following inscription in old Gothic letters:—

I first, thou next; poor and miserable was I born. Here is more got than lost.	Ich far du na, arm und elend bin ich gebaren, Hiet ist mehr gewonnen als verlohren.
---	--

Near the ass, is the figure of a globe, with a cross reversed, with this inscription:—

The world is turned top- sy turvy, Therefore, I, poor Ass, have learned to pipe.	De Welt heft sich ummekehrt, Drum hebbe ich arme Esel pipeß gelehrt.
---	---

Under this, a man sits upon a flasket, with this inscription:—

God be merciful to me a sinner!	Gott seo mir armer Sunder gnädig!
------------------------------------	-----------------------------------

Round the whole is written:—

On Tuesday after Mi- chaelmas, died the late Gesche Vander Holter.	Dienstags na Michaeli starb selige Gesche von der Holter.
--	--

Many are the conjectures about the origin of this monument; but by whom, or for what purpose it was erected, is not known.

7th. Fronting the door, at the entrance on the north side, are pictures of Moses, Gideon, Joshua, and Sampson, the last with the jaw-bone in his hand. Near these is the Virgin Mary.

8th. At the west side is a cupboard, with folding-doors, which are opened only on particular saints' days. It contains a group of figures, curiously wrought in wood, and painted.

The Virgin Mary is sitting with Christ in her arms, Joseph and four others standing behind, and a huge lion is lying at the feet of the Virgin.

In the front of the group, sits an artist, taking the likeness of the Mother and Infant ; it seems nearly finished. Behind the artist, sits a droll figure of a man grinding the colors. The Dohm, being a common thoroughfare, is of course very dirty. There are always two or three book-stalls in the church, and once a-year, i. e. a fortnight before Christmas, there is a regular fair held here. This is an antient custom ; whether it will be continued after the Dohm is in the possession of the city, is doubtful.

No. VII.

DUTIES AND TAXES.

(SEE THE PICTURE OF HAMBURGH.)

The regular Taxes are,

1st. *THE Kopf-geld* (poll-tax). Every person pays one mark per 1000 value upon his estate.

2d. The yearly Poll-tax, is for a single man, one mark. For a married man $1\frac{1}{2}$ mark.

3d. For an equipage 100; for a riding horse, 50 marks.

4th. *Bürger-Wacht-geld* is from six to twelve marks, yearly. This belongs to the Bürger captain of the district.

5th. *Lucien-Schosz*.—This is one-fourth per cent. raised upon the value of all houses, lands, and furniture; this tax is paid in secret, in a bag according to the estimate given in by the proprietor himself.

6th. *Nacht-wacht* and *Leuchten Geld*, Watch and Lamp-tax, is about twelve marks yearly.

7th. *Zehnter Pfennig*. This is the $\frac{1}{8}$ of what is taken out of the city. —The members of the English Factory are exempt from this tax.

8th. The quarter per cent tax is assessed upon all property moveable and immoveable, according to the estimation of the proprietor himself.

This tax, like the *Lucien-Schoz*, is never collected in public, nor is any inspection made into the statement given in by the proprietor. The town trusts to the honor of the parties, and receives their contributions in a bag sealed up.

As confidence begets liberality, it is said that many citizens pay more than their quota. — The receipts of this tax in the treasury amount to upwards of 260,000 marks yearly.

9th. *Haus Schilling* (Rent-tax). This is $\frac{1}{16}$ of the house-rent, levied on the tenant or lodger.

10th. *Grabengeld*. This is assigned to keep the ramparts and ditches in order: it amounts to about two Skellings per week, each house.

11th. *Eslinger-tax* is levied upon the territory held in common with Lübeck.

12th. The theatres and other public places of amusement pay $\frac{1}{4}$ of their receipts to the town.

13th. *Bier-Accise* (Beer-tax) is a duty of two marks per barrel.

14th. *Matheu*, (Meal-tax) from 20 to 24 skellings per bushel.

15th. *Vieh*, or Cattle-duty, is $\frac{1}{16}$ of the purchase-money on horned-cattle, swine, and sheep. Those slaughtered for exportation are exempt. This duty was for some years compounded, and the butchers agreed to pay 90,000 marks yearly. At present it is paid by the market price.

16th. *Wein Accise* (Wine-duty) is four dollars per hogshead.

All merchandise and fruit, such as oranges, lemons, &c. pay $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Every box, barrel, bag, or casket, brought by land into the city, pays at the gates two skellings entry.

These are the chief assessments, most interesting to strangers to know.

A very productive tax would be a duty on cigars; and if we judge by the utility and propriety of the measure it will no doubt be adopted. It is said that 80,000 boxes, from 30 to 50 marks each, are imported and fabricated at Hamburg; and that at least 50,000 are consumed

by the inhabitants of this city, chiefly by youths from ten to thirty years of age. That a custom so pernicious to health should not by some means be restrained is to be regretted. Several gentlemen of the faculty have given it as their opinion, that out of twenty deaths of young men, before their thirty-fifth year, ten at least have their source in this early practice of smoaking sigars; and any person when he sees a young boy straining and puffing to light one, sometimes for a quarter of an hour, must be convinced of the fact, and the necessity of some restriction.

ADVERTISEMENT TO TRAVELLERS.

IT was owing to some particular circumstances, that the smacks mentioned in this publication happened to be at Husum, the packet-boats usually sailing from Heligoland after the month of November. This measure was a very prudent one, as the Husum river being narrow, winding, and full of sand banks, is consequently very difficult to navigate. It would indeed be dangerous in the highest degree, were it not for the buoys that were placed there by the Trinity-house; but these were always removed before the setting in of the frost.

Persons of all countries embarking for England, either at Husum, or Heligoland, were obliged to have a permit from the agent of the English government, without which the captains of the packet-boats could not receive them, on pain of being severely punished. The passport must also be examined by the commandant of the Danish troops; after which it passed through three other examinations, each costing one or two marks, and was at last obliged to be shown to the commanding officer on duty near the place of embarkation.

The passengers who found their own provisions paid two guineas and a half each person; this was a fixed price: but those who chose to engage the whole cabin were at the mercy of the captain, who charged what he pleased. This was also the case in regard to carriages and horses. The expence of the voyage varied according to circumstances, but it was always a proper precaution to make a bargain on arriving in England, should it be necessary to go on shore in a boat. The people employed on such occasions are scandalously imposing; and our vessel being anchored about two hundred fathom from the jettée at Yarmouth, I was obliged to pay two guineas for landing myself and my baggage, consisting of two trunks and a portmanteau, and it was not without difficulty that I got off for so *small* a sum.

The master of the boat appointed to convey passengers, &c., from Husum to the packet-boat, had the insolence to permit us to embark at an hour when he knew the tide would not serve to go down the river; we were therefore obliged to stop at a short distance from the town. What plainly proved the plan was preconcerted, was the arrival of carriages purposely to take us back again to the inn, where we remained another night. The distance from Husum to the packets is about five miles, and the price for each passenger a golden ducat. Servants pay half that sum. But in winter, when the passage is long and dangerous, from the necessity of going to Heligoland in ice-boats, the expence is much more considerable.

N. B. Though subsequent events have now put an end to all direct and regular intercourse with the Danish territory, yet, in case of the restoration of peace between the two countries, these observations may still be found useful to the traveler.

TRAVELS

THROUGH

D E N M A R K.

DIFFERENT MODERN ACCOUNTS

OF

DENMARK,

AND THE TIME OF THEIR PUBLICATION.

AMONGST the modern English authors who have written their travels into Denmark, Sweden, &c. the most distinguished are Mr. Coxe and Mr. Wraxall. Though we acknowledge the merits of the former, and are ready to do all possible justice to his talents, we have sometimes ventured to differ from him in opinion: but we flatter ourselves our manner of discussing the points in which we do not agree, will prove that our only motive is the love of truth, joined, indeed, to the fear that such weighty authority as that of Mr. Coxe might engage the public to adopt opinions, which we think will admit of explanation.

The following works may also be read with much advantage, viz.

Consett's Tour through Sweden, Swedish Lapland, Finland, and Denmark.

Jackson's Account of Denmark and Sweden.

Swinton's Travels into Norway, Denmark, and Russia, in the Years 1788, 1789, 1790, 1791. Translated into French by P. E. Henri; with a Letter on Russia, by Richer Serizy; two volumes in 8vo.; together with an Atlas.

Sir John Carr's Northern Summer; or, Travels round the Baltic, through Denmark, Sweden, &c., in 1784; in one vol. 4to.

Those also, who are sufficiently curious to read all the modern works published in English on Denmark, &c., may indulge themselves with the perusal of Mary Wollstonecraft's Letters, written during a short Residence in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark, in 1796.

The above works are so well known in England, that all remarks upon them would be superfluous.

Le Tableau des Etats Dannois envisagés sous le Rapport du Mécanisme Social, par Jean Pierre Catteau, avec une Carte, printed at Paris in 1802, in three volumes 8vo., is the most complete and interesting of all the recent publications on the Continent. It commences by a list of the principal works consulted by the author; after which is an Introduction, or rather a Sketch of the successive Formation of the Danish Government.

The above work appeared to me so exact, that I have not scrupled quoting from it still more frequently than Mons. de Catteau has allowed himself to do from *Le Voyage de Deux François*; and I frankly own, that whatever I have added relative to the altered state of Denmark, has been taken from this publication.

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TRAVELS

THROUGH

D E N M A R K.

CHAP. I.

Road from Hamburgh to Copenhagen.

ITINERARY from Hamburgh to Copenhagen :

DANISH MILES.

To Pinneberg	-	-	-	-	3½
To Elmshorn	-	-	-	-	2½
To Itzehoe, (city)	-	-	-	-	3½

[Inn the city of Hamburgh. A great many monuments in the church ; and a chapter for ladies of fashion.]

To Rammels	-	-	-	-	3
To Rendsburgh, (city)	-	-	-	-	3
To Schleswig, (city)	-	-	-	-	3½
To Flensburgh, (city)	-	-	-	-	4½
To Apenrade, (city)	-	-	-	-	4½
To Haderleben, (city)	-	-	-	-	4½
To Aroe	-	-	-	-	2
To Assens, by sea	-	-	-	-	2
To Odensée, (city)	-	-	-	-	5

[Chapter and University.]

	DANISH MILES.
To Nyborg	4
To Corsoer, (city) by sea	4
To Stagelse	2
[Here they grow tobacco.]	
To Ringsedt	4
To Roschild, (city)	4
To Copenhagen, (city)	4
Total	62½
[Inn, the grand royal hotel.]	

The road from Hamburgh to Pinneberg is upon a tolerable causeway, and that of the three next stages, through a populous country, with several handsome houses on each side. The first custom-house belonging to Denmark is at a very small distance from Hamburgh: it is not strict; and a very trifling sum prevented our being stopped. The town of Itzehoe contains five hundred houses*; and we found the causeway from thence to Rannels very bad, the country but little cultivated, with no-

* This town is since very much increased in size, and the inn is excellent. It contains a convent of ladies of fashion. Such communities have been established as a resource for young women of noble families, who, being destitute of fortune, are unable to support their rank in the world, and who, by these means, are prevented making disproportionate marriages. A certain number of young ladies are here assured of a maintenance suitable to their birth, and are placed under the direction of an abbess. They are bound by no vows, though they form a religious association. These communities are supported by voluntary contributions, and by legacies left by several members of the body of nobility. Some amongst them are in possession of very considerable estates. The persons admitted are not only lodged and boarded, but receive an annuity, amounting sometimes to more than two hundred rix-dollars. It is, however, necessary to pay a certain sum to the convent for matriculation. The most ancient, and one of the richest, of these houses, is at Roschild, founded in 1699. That at

thing to be seen but dry turf and continual plains. The city of Rensburg is well fortified*, and forms an island upon the Byder. This river terminates what is properly called Germany on the Danish side. We perceived the sea before we arrived at Gottorp, and it had a fine effect from that spot. There is a castle at Gottorp, with twenty-three windows in front, looking upon the great road. It is an antique building, with nothing remarkable within, though it is the residence of Prince Charles of Hesse, Governor of Holstein, and father-in-law of the present sovereign. Gottorp joins the city of Sleswic by a row of trees. The mausoleum of Frederic I. is in the church of Sleswic, and is extremely well worth seeing.

According to the regulation of the posts in Denmark, the post-master is allowed an hour to get the horses ready; and we seldom waited more than that time. From Sleswic we proceeded to the city of Flensburg, which is extremely commercial for this country: it is tolerably well built and lighted. Part of the road from Flensburg to the sea is better than that we had passed before; and we usually traveled a mile in an hour and a quarter. The postillions did not stop so frequently, and went on as well as they possibly could. They are obliged to give the courier a note, upon which is written the time of their depar-

Walløe, in Zealand, owes its origin to the generosity of Sophia Magdalen, the Queen of Christian VI. The abbess enjoys a revenue of six hundred rix-dollars, besides wood, game, and a variety of other articles. Should she happen to be of royal blood, her pension is two thousand rix-dollars, with several other advantages. These communities are nine in number, each of which contains at least ten ladies. Of late years these communities have been made still more useful, and the fund of that at Wimmest being, by economy, considerably increased, the revenues of the ladies have not only been augmented, but a certain sum is annually dedicated for educating the youth of the district, and for relieving the distresses of the poor.

* The following pentameter verse is on the gate of the city:—

Eibori Romani terminus Imperii.

ture from the last post, and the traveler marks down whether or not he is satisfied with the postillion. Those who have three notes in their disfavor are punished. We know not why this method, which is undoubtedly a very good one, should not be continued any further than from the first post from Hamburgh to the island of Funen; that is to say, only in the dutchies. Throughout all this part, the peasants appear at their ease, and the country rich. Their houses are generally divided into two, and the separation formed by two large covered doors. This is, without any comparison, the finest possession belonging to Denmark. We passed the smaller Belt at Aroé*, where there is nothing but the post-house and two or three cottages. Nine marks lubs are paid for embarking and passing over a carriage, and the landing it is paid for separately; and we gave them two marks lubs, with which they appeared very well satisfied. The passage is two miles, and we were seven hours going over; but, when the wind is favorable, it may be crossed in less than two. We paid a mark lubs upon arriving at Assens for taking our carriage from the causeway to the post-house; and we gave a mark to the boatmen to drink—but this last is a voluntary gift. The passage is very convenient in one particular, there being no occasion to take the carriage to pieces: but, on the other hand, though it is extremely frequented, the boatmen are so awkward, that it is necessary never to lose sight of the carriage, and to give directions oneself both in embarking and landing it. Here we entered Funen where Danish paper is first current. The price of horses is altered, and, instead of paying

* Those who continue their journey towards the north will go to Jutland, which is a good country when there is no mortality among the cattle, which unfortunately happens but too often.

one mark lubs each horse, we only paid three-fourths, and that as far as Nyborg, viz. two posts. Upon quitting Assens we paid five skellings each horse, and four when we left Odensée; consequently one skelling per mile: for the island of Fünen, which we crossed entirely, is nine miles one way and ten the other. This country passes for being very good, but we thought it miserable: yet it supplies (together with the islands of Lauand and Falster) the capital; and these three islands are the best cultivated in the kingdom. The houses are thatched, built with wood and clay; the soil appears good, and the country flat. We were told by every one that a great many gentlemen are settled in this island: if so, their houses are undoubtedly upon the sea shore; for we saw nothing from the road that appeared like the residence of a gentleman, even of the smallest fortune.

Odensée is the capital, and situated in the centre of the island; but it is a place of no consequence, though it contains some glove manufactories, and considerable tanneries. Nyborg is a very small town, slightly fortified towards the country, with a very small port, and about eight hundred inhabitants. Here we crossed the Great Belt, showed our passport, and paid eight skellings each person. Embarking and passing the carriage cost seven rix-dollars. It is about four Danish miles over, and we went in two hours and a half, never losing sight of land—embarking and landing, each took up half an hour. Here the carriages are taken to pieces, but the boatmen understand their business better than those of the Lesser Belt. These boats are decked, which is not the case at the other passage. We paid two marks for embarking, and the same for landing; four skellings for the carriage; two for each person; and a rix-dollar to

drink. We entered Zealand at Corsoer, where there is a custom-house, at which we were examined. This island is flat, at least in the part we crossed; and the peasants are sometimes obliged to procure corn from Copenhagen to sow with. Corsoer is a very small town, with a castle very poorly fortified. The place where we disembarked was pretty good, though there is no machine for taking out the carriages. The boatmen often refuse to cross the Great Belt when it is rather late in the day; they always make the wind their pretext, and the traveler is obliged to submit. In this place the horses cost more, and fifteen skellings a mile is paid from Easter to Michaelmas, and from Michaelmas to Easter seventeen and a half. The causeway from Corsoer is very well kept up, and miles and half miles are marked the whole road upon stones, on which is either Christian VII.'s. or Frederic V.'s cypher. There is a barrier at every mile, where we paid two skellings. It is reckoned fourteen miles from Corsoer to Copenhagen; and we changed horses for the last time at Roschild. This town, in Danish called Roeskilde*, is situated on an arm of the Baltic, and was formerly the residence of the Kings of Denmark. The bishop was primate of the kingdom. The trade was very flourishing, and employed great numbers of hands and vessels, but it is now reduced to a few streets, with grass growing in the midst of them: nothing indeed remains of its antient splendor, except the tombs of the kings and those of the royal family. These are in a church of Gothic architecture,

* The water is reckoned the best in Denmark, and is daily sent to Copenhagen for the use of the royal family.

which has nothing particularly striking in it's appearance. The remains of that queen, whose brows were crowned with three diadems, and who changed the political existence of three nations, are interred facing the altar. Her tomb is covered with a stone, painted black, on which she is represented in alabaster lying at length. The inscription is as follows:—*This monument was erected by Eric, the successor of Margaret, in honor of that princess, to whose merit posterity will never render sufficient praise.*—Christian I. was also the first monarch of the House of Oldenburg, interred in a small chapel, but the monuments of Christian III. and Frederic II. executed in marble, are much the most magnificent: they came from Italy, and are esteemed master-pieces of sculpture. The tomb of Christian IV., the most remarkable of all the Danish sovereigns, is only distinguished by a simple stone, with a few trophies: these indeed are sufficient, since the admiration of succeeding ages, and the page of history, are the most striking monuments of those superior mortals who have astonished the world by their talents, and improved it by their virtues. John and Christian II. are interred in the great church at Odensee. The four miles from thence to Copenhagen are the worst in the whole road from Cossor; but they were repairing them when we were there. Neither the country, nor the environs on this side of Copenhagen, gave us any idea of the vicinity of a capital, and still less of a rich country. There is nothing to be seen the whole way to the suburbs, worth notice, but the obelisk, erected in memory of the freedom granted to husbandmen. It is situated just before the fine avenue leading to Fredericksburg, and bears the following inscription:—*The king being convinced that civil liberty, directed by just laws, inspires the love*

of our country, with the courage to defend it, the desire of information, a taste for labor, and the hope of happiness, he, therefore, has commanded, that slavery should be abolished, and that order and dispatch should preside at the execution of all rustic laws; so that the husbandman being free, courageous, enlightened, laborious and good, may in future become, and be regarded as, an estimable and happy citizen. The basis of the obelisk is ornamented with emblems and inscriptions, and bears four marble figures, representing Fidelity, Agricultural Industry, Courage, and Patriotism. The prince royal laid the first stone in 1792, and the inscription terms him, *the son of the king, and the friend of the people*. The monument is eighty ells in height, and cost fourteen thousand rix-dollars, raised by subscription. A traveler stopping to contemplate this obelisk cannot forbear showering benedictions on a prince, minister, and citizens, who, in spite of prejudice and self-interest, have been the cause of so benevolent a reform, since every thing relative to the existence and well-being of the race of husbandmen, must ever be interesting to a thinking mind.

The royal castle of Fredericsburg to the left half a league from the city, makes a handsome appearance, and there is a gallery of pictures and some paintings to be seen. The garden is a very pretty public walk. There are no country-houses upon this road; merely some thatched cottages scattered here and there. The custom-house at Copenhagen is not strict; and we were only accompanied to our inn by one of the clerks, whom we discharged with a few marks for his trouble. There are conveniences for sleeping at all the post-houses between Hamburgh and Copenhagen; though some indeed are very indifferent; and we would recommend to all

travelers to make their bargains beforehand, otherwise they run a chance of being most completely duped*.

* Though Denmark is undoubtedly very well governed, with laws to protect every one, we are obliged to declare in this place, that our servant having met with some very disagreeable behaviour from the postillions between Roschild and Copenhagen, we found it impossible to obtain any redress. The minister, who had the care of the police, to whom we made our complaints, through our own minister, contented himself with assuring us, that the event, of which we had complained, had never happened; and this was all the satisfaction we could ever obtain.

CHAP. II.

Copenhagen.—The Court.—Royal Castle.—King's Library.—Arsenal for the Land Forces.—Rosenburg.—Charlottenburg.—Observatory.—The University.—Library.—Cadets in the Land-Service.

COPENHAGEN.

THE city of Copenhagen is very handsome and well built, though, for a capital, not large. It contains more than four thousand houses, besides twelve hundred lodgings of one story high for the sailors, and barracks for three regiments. This capital of Denmark consisted originally of only a few fishermen's huts, which were erected in the twelfth century, on a marshy soil, partly formed by gained land. The port of this hamlet was at that time one of the best and the most frequented in the Baltic. Foreigners brought in their vessels in stormy weather, and traded with the inhabitants of the island of Zealand. In a short time afterwards this port took the name of Kjøbenhavn, the Danish word for merchant's port. This the Germans called Kopenhagen, since transformed by the French into Copenhague (English, Co-

penhagen. Absalon, bishop of Roskild, built a fortress near the port to defend the coast against the incursions of pirates; obtaining, at the same time, the property of Copenhagen and the neighbouring lands. Ever mindful of the interests of the church, the prelate transmitted this property to the episcopal see of Roskild, and requested of the pope a confirmation of the grant. This request was not refused, and the pope declared, that whosoever should dare to attempt any thing against the rights held by the see of Roskild, over Copenhagen, would incur the indignation of the all powerful God, and the blessed apostles, Saint Peter and Saint Paul. The bishops soon succeeded in transforming this hamlet of fishermen into a commercial town, from which they received very considerable rents; but which, after being in their possession a hundred and fifty years, was taken from them by Christopher II., who gave it to John, Count of Holstein, as a security for a loan of seven thousand silver marks. A gentleman, named Plessen, bought it of the count, and sold it soon afterwards to the King of Sweden. Waldemar III. succeeded in restoring it to Denmark, though he had at first confirmed the alienation. The bishops of Roskild were not anxious to recover a possession which, at that time, they would most probably have been forced to take up arms to defend; they therefore consented to let it remain in the king's power; but, the moment they perceived all danger was over, they reclaimed their right. The kings, not daring to refuse them openly, contrived to elude the demand by artfully raising difficulties of different kinds, till at last Christopher of Bavaria, wishing to fix his residence at Copenhagen, obtained a formal cession of the city by giving a proper equivalent. Many persons of distinction then flocked to this new royal residence, and the diets being held there, greatly increased the splendor of the place. Christian I. founded an

University, and the establishments for the royal navy were formed by degrees. But Copenhagen was never so considerable as it has been since the revolution of 1660, which invested the king with absolute sovereign power. This city then became the centre of government, whither every one repaired to court the favor of the monarch, to transact business of importance, and to solicit places or titles. Several rich proprietors have built palaces, and money flows in from the different provinces. During the last century, the trading companies have contributed greatly to the riches and extent of the metropolis.

Some parts of this city are magnificent. The Goth-Street is more than fifteen hundred and fifty yards, or seven furlongs in length, and built in a straight line. It is, in general, well paved with flag-stones for foot-passengers in almost all the streets; but these are too narrow to be of any use; added to which, they are crossed by kennels between each house; and though these are usually covered with planks, it is not always the case; which makes it inconvenient, and indeed dangerous, to walk in the dark. The city is pretty well lighted: the cotton for each lamp amounts to eight or nine marks per annum. They tried, indeed, in two streets, to light it in the Parisian manner: but the expence was too great for them to carry their plan entirely into execution. Cleansing the town alone costs 26,000 rix-dollars.

Since the great fire, which destroyed nearly a third of Copenhagen, in 1795, and which consumed the worst part of the town, the whole has been greatly embellished, and handsome houses, regularly built, have replaced the antient ones. So frequent indeed were accidents of this nature, that they called for the particular attention of the magistrates, and there are now persons publicly employed, in all the bailiwicks, to exercise this branch of the police; they act under the direction of the bailiffs, and

have particular instructions for that purpose. Soon after the above-mentioned terrible conflagration, which consumed nearly a thousand houses, new regulations were published: these determined in what manner the different quarters were to act in cases of fire; how they were to procure assistance; what rewards those were to receive who distinguished themselves by their zeal on such occasions; how the effects of the sufferers by fire should be preserved; and what steps should be taken in litigious cases.

In former times, collections were made to indemnify the sufferers by fire, whose taxes were also suspended; but in the beginning of the last century, the method of insurance was adopted. There are two insurance offices in Copenhagen: one for property consisting of buildings, and the other for effects and merchandise. The first was established in 1731, by the authority of government. The first payment is one per cent. of the principal: this is sometimes under, but never above the value of the building. During eight consecutive years, there is an annual addition of a quarter per cent. and during five more an eighth per cent., but these thirteen years once past, no farther payment is required. This office was in a very prosperous situation, when the dreadful fire in 1795 reduced it to worse than nothing; since the damage was estimated at four millions of rix-dollars, and the fund consisted of only one million, nine hundred and eighty thousand, three hundred. The government assisted the office on this occasion, and took upon itself the general direction. In 1799, property was insured to the amount of twenty-four millions, two hundred and twenty-nine thousand, nine hundred and fifty rix-dollars, whilst the fund was only two millions, seven hundred and thirty-two thousand, two hundred and seventy-two.

The second office was instituted by a company of merchants, in 1778, which insured effects and merchandise for one million.

eight hundred and fifty-three thousand, one hundred and fifty six-dollars, in 1791; and in 1799, for thirteen millions, one hundred and sixty-one thousand, and four six-dollars. Since the great fire the shares are augmented, and form at present a fund of six hundred thousand six-dollars. The conditions of insurance are very advantageous both to the insurers, and those who insure. The government, in 1798, has sanctioned a company to insure goods, effects, and merchandise, not only in Denmark, but in Norway, and all the dutchies, the city of Copenhagen alone excepted. The fund has been fixed provisionally, at five hundred thousand six-dollars, divided into five thousand shares. A dividend of only four per cent. is to be paid the five first years, and the remainder of the profits is to be added to the fund, which they propose increasing to a million*.

Copenhagen is very interesting to a traveler, and contains many fine establishments, which ought to be accurately examined. This city unites to the advantages of a capital all those arising from a commercial town. The port is safe and very handsome; and there are a great many canals, which are extremely convenient for transporting merchandise, and carrying it to the different store-houses appointed to receive it.

The number of Inhabitants in Copenhagen, amounted to 70,495 in the year 1769: and from 1784 to 1799 they were estimated as follow:—

Years.	Inhabitants.
1784	93,719
1785	87,023
1786	87,801

* The late bombardment (1807) must have greatly shaken this fund, the loss by fire being very considerable: it is indeed hard to say how far the sufferings of that city may extend during the present war.

Years.	Inhabitants.
1787	90,032
1788	86,827
1789	85,470
1790	88,965
1791	84,509
1792	86,463
1793	85,771
1794	86,133

In the year 1798, they were reckoned at 83,063; 41,419 of whom were males, and 41,644 females. And in 1799, at 83,618; of whom 42,142 were males, and 41,476 females. If, as we have reason to believe, this calculation be just, it appears that the population of this city has been nearly the same for some time, and even in some degree diminished. It is probable that, owing to the dearness of Copenhagen, several persons may have retired either into the country, or into provincial towns: perhaps also the provinces, finding it easier to provide for their subsistence at home than formerly, send fewer recruits to the capital. The number of deaths in this city, as indeed in all large towns, generally exceeds the births; the overplus, however, is not so striking as in many other places, as may be perceived by the following statement:—

Years.	Born.	Died.
1796	3,027	3,045
1797	3,276	3,278
1798	3,351	3,717
1799	3,407	3,601

In the years 1784, and 1792, the advantage was on the side of the births, there being 3,224 born, and 3,004 died in the former;

and 3,027 born, and only 2,433 died, in the latter. The marriages which took place in four years, were as follow:—

In 1784	1078
1792	860
1796	978
1798	1017

Among the 2,433 who died in 1792, 289 were carried off by consumptions and other disorders of the chest; 418 by apoplexies; 139 by the small-pox, the greatest part were children; 29 were drowned; 12 were killed by falls; and 2 committed suicide; 332 died of maladies not mentioned in the bills of mortality, but which most probably were occasioned by the excesses in which the inhabitants of great towns generally allow themselves*.

* The other towns in Denmark are not very populous. Some of the principal ones contained the following number of inhabitants in the following years:—

	1769.	1787.
Odensee	5,209	5,363
Alborg	4,160	4,806
Clarius	3,597	4,052
Elsinore	3,331	4,829
Horsens	2,584	2,221
Frédéricia	2,622	3,066
Randers	2,718	3,645
Rænne	2,019	2,120
Wiborg	1,990	2,572
Ribe	1,827	2,587
Swenborg	1,714	2,025
Roskild	1,620	1,871
Nyborg	1,451	1,672
Colding	1,396	1,659
Kiøge	1,340	1,366
Nestwed	1,317	1,501
Slagelse	1,289	1,722
Naschkou	1,284	1,375
Corsær	1,280	1,269
Kallundborg	1,204	1,375

The gates of Copenhagen are not shut till midnight during the summer; but in short days they are always closed at seven o'clock.

The citadel is at the end of the town, and is so small, that there is not room for more than two battalions. There are two gates; one towards the town, and the other towards the country: the latter is tolerably fortified, and has five bastions. Though it froze when we saw it, the chasseurs were exercising in the court. There are two small rooms next the chapel, in which Brandt and Struensée were confined before their sentence.

Frederic's-square* forms an octagon, surrounded by four large palaces with uniform fronts, and two pavilions to each. These are now inhabited by the royal family, which formerly lived in the castle of Christiansburg, unfortunately destroyed by the great fire in 1795. The king resides in the first of these palaces; the prince royal in the second; the king's nephew, Prince Christian, in the third; and the fourth is appropriated to the navy school. These communicate to each other by means of a gallery. The four streets which terminate in this square are very handsome. There is an opening to the port from one of the shortest of these streets; and the other finishes at Frederic's church, which is not completed, but will have a very fine effect†.

* Formerly called Amalienburg-square.

† The first stone was laid on the 30th of October, 1749, in memory of the accession of the House of Oldenburg to the throne of Denmark; there was a medal struck on this occasion, which is placed under the foundation stone, and bears the following inscription:

In Memoriam Servatæ
Per Tria Secula
Regiæ domus Oldenburgicæ
Grato in Deum Animo
Fredericus Quintus
R. Dan. Norv.
Hujus Templi Primum Posuit Lapidem
XXX Octobr. MDCCXLIX.

The entrance-gate is ornamented by six columns, and the whole is to be of marble; but it will not, most probably, be finished for a long time. There is an equestrian statue of bronze in this square: it represents Frederic V. and was put up by the Asiatic Company in 1769. M. Saly was the sculptor. It is extremely fine, and much superior to that of Christian V., which is in the market-place, and, in our opinion, entirely void of expression. The statue of Frederic V. cost near two millions of rix-dollars*.

None of the churches are worth seeing; and the pernicious custom of burying in the city still prevails. The corpse is carried in a car, which is more or less elegant, according to the circumstances of the deceased, and followed by numerous carriages: indeed the funerals are in general very magnificent; and even the common people are sometimes followed to the grave by five

The original plan was, that this edifice should be of marble, of the Corinthian order, the whole forming a very lofty dome; that the two grand entrances should be porticos projecting from the body of the edifice; that there should be towers, which were only to communicate to the main building by the base and entablature; that the upper part of the dome should be ornamented by a circular colonnade; that there should be two rows of pillars in the inside of the church, the one placed on the other, forming a peristyle below, and a gallery above, surmounted by a cupola, open at top; and that above this cupola should be a vaulted roof, with a painted ceiling, rising from the outside wall, which should support the dome. This building could not possibly be begun before 1760, and was soon afterwards discontinued: it has since been recommenced at different periods, but there is scarcely one-third finished. In order to complete it as soon as possible, it is resolved to simplify the plan, and to retrench the most expensive parts of the undertaking.

* The equestrian statue of Christian V., in the King's New-Market, the most spacious square in Copenhagen, is very little calculated to interest the spectator; it is of lead, and being originally ill placed, is extremely sunk. It is also heavy and inanimate to the greatest degree. A figure, which is thought to represent Envy, is under the horse's feet. This statue is the work of a French artist, called Abraham Césaire l'Amoureux, in the year 1681.

or six carriages. There are two churches for reformists, where they preach in German and French.

*Theatrical Amusements**.—The playhouse is a separate building in the market-place: the architecture is irregular, but the inside pretty and ornamented. They perform, four times a week, operas and plays alternately, and always in the Danish tongue. This theatre costs the king from 60 to 70,000 rix-dollars per annum, even after having reckoned the entrance-money, which is but trifling, on account of the numbers who are admitted gratis. We saw the opera of *Cora*; and we thought the actors very little deserving the great salaries allowed them: indeed we may venture to pronounce this *spectacle* to be much below mediocrity.

There are very few assemblies in Copenhagen. Ombre is the favorite game, even at court. They do not use counters, but mark the points with chalk upon the green cloth, and rub them out according to the progress of the game. The *corps diplomatique* is the great resource of foreigners; and the ministers almost constantly live amongst themselves. They have established a private theatre, where they perform once a fortnight, and the royal family

* Denmark could boast of no theatre till towards the middle of the seventeenth century; when Christian V. built one for the Italian opera, in the capital; this, however, subsisted but a very few years, it being burned down in 1689: the representations consequently were discontinued. The memoirs of that time state that three hundred persons lost their lives on this melancholy occasion. Frederick IV. sent for a company of French comedians, who performed in the palace; but in 1720 they were ordered to return into their own country, and a national theatre was opened soon afterwards. A German company also arrived at the same time, but all these theatrical amusements ended with Frederick IV., for the pious Christian VI. would never tolerate any thing of that nature. On the accession of Frederic V. to the throne, several theatres were opened, but all failed except the Danish one, which was under the management of the magistrate of the city. This theatre exists at present, and is managed by a committee, the members of which are appointed by the king.

stantly attends. There are also different clubs, the members of which frequently give balls and concerts in the winter, where foreigners find no difficulty in being admitted.

The Court of Denmark.—The court-days are once a fortnight. Foreigners are presented by their own ministers, and at the same time to all the royal family, which is very numerous. There is a supper on court-days; and foreigners ought to have the rank of colonel to entitle them to an invitation. The men and women are equal in number; and all precedence is abolished, excepting indeed the royal family, whose places are marked at the table; every one else drawing lots indiscriminately. Two hats are carried about, containing a great many corresponding numbers: the men draw out of one, and the women out of the other; after which, the groom of the chambers calls over the different numbers, and each gentleman hands the lady allotted him by chance. He sits next her at table, and conducts her back again when supper is over.

The late king had no concern in public affairs for many years previous to his death. His son managed the kingdom entirely, though his majesty's signature was still necessary to edicts and ordinances; which the ministers thought a proper precaution, in order to curb the wishes of a young prince, who they feared might become arbitrary too soon.

This prince (the present sovereign) is perfectly military; and this prevailing taste shows itself in his carriage and all his employments. He is generally more feared than loved; though every one allows his heart to be good, and his manner of thinking just. He is constantly employed; and, though young, no friend to dissipation. Indeed, there is every reason to believe he will prove worthy of the throne to which he has now succeeded.

The princesses are very prepossessing in their appearance, and extremely polite in their manners. The king's daughter married to the prince of Augustenburg is a model of perfection and graceful elegance.

*The Royal Castle** is a large edifice, almost square, situated in an island formed by a canal, the entrance to which is over a great number of bridges. It is easy to make the tour of this building on the outside. The grand entrance is through a large iron grate, with two side doors, ornamented in a bad style. The grand court is surrounded by open arcades, and a building one story high, with thirteen windows, in the centre of each side. There are stables on the right and left for coach and saddle horses: these are extremely handsome†.

This first court is three hundred and ninety feet long, and three hundred and forty wide in the broadest part, without reckoning the depth of the arcades, which is twelve feet. The dis-

* The fire in 1794 has almost entirely destroyed this magnificent edifice, very little remaining but walls and rubbish. Mr. Kiettner, in his travels through Denmark, complains that taxes had been levied purposely to rebuild this palace, which, however, had still been suffered to remain in the same ruined state; but those who know the prince, can never entertain a doubt of his having properly employed the money destined for this purpose, since, notwithstanding the misery of the present times, the rubbish was begun to be removed in 1804, the walls to be repaired, &c. &c. The stables, riding-house, cabinet of curiosities, and library, fortunately escaped the fury of the flames. The late events have, without doubt, put a stop for the present to these repairs.

† The stables are vaulted, and the horses are upon stone, at six feet distance from each other. The mangers are marble, and the racks iron. One man dresses two and sometimes three saddle-horses, or else four coach-horses. The stable to the left for saddle-horses is intersected by the riding-house, which is a hundred and seventy-six feet by fifty-six; with fifteen windows and a gallery. This is open to every one; and it is laughable enough to go thither about noon, and see fifteen or twenty people, entirely unknown to each other, riding about in all directions, some trotting, others galloping. It is impossible but some disagreeable rencontres must now and then happen. Horses are likewise exercised and aired in the grand court of the castle.

tance between them is not equal, and is from nine to eleven feet. At the entrance-door the arcades are distant from each other eighty feet. The castle is three hundred and thirty feet long, with six stories, three great and three small, and twenty-five windows in front. The pilasters are of the Composite order; and those at the entrance, together with the columns, Ionic. The interior court has fifteen windows by thirteen; and is in length a hundred and ninety feet by a hundred and sixty-two. The building on the four sides of the square is from eighty to a hundred feet deep. The outside has twenty-eight windows, and is three hundred and forty-five feet long. There are two side courts, surrounded by buildings two hundred and forty-five feet long, by a hundred and six; and at the back front, two sunk pavilions with eleven windows: that to the right communicates to the Chancery, and that to the left to another pavilion with seven windows by thirteen. There are other interior courts and buildings of less consequence, which we shall pass over in silence. The architecture of this edifice, upon the whole, is not fine, nor even elegant: it is, however, an imposing pile of building, which announces the habitation of a sovereign. It was built by Christian VI.

The inside of this castle contains many interesting objects of curiosity, in pictures, natural history, and other rare articles of every kind. We will begin by the rooms which form the museum and the adjoining gallery of pictures.

There is a fine collection of birds of the country, and from India, in the first room; a very beautiful Argus; and Tycho Brahe's elbow chair.

The grand gallery* is two hundred and forty-two feet long,

* The pictures in the Royal Castle, saved from the flames in 1794, are in this gallery.

with a small cabinet at the end.—The following are the most remarkable pictures :—

The Kings worshiping Christ, by *Pietro Perrugino*.

An Ecce Homo! by *And. Montegna*, a piece very worthy of Corregio's master.

St. Agatha, a very valuable painting, by *Leonardo di Vinci*.

The Birth of our Saviour, by *Raphael d'Urbino*, a capital piece, though one of his first performances.

The Magi adoring Christ, by *Garofalo*.

A Holy Family, with a Bishop, by *Giulio Romano*.

A Holy Family, with St. Catherine, by *Corregio*, in his first manner.

A Holy Family, by *Titian*.

A Female Saint holding a Death's Head, by *Pordenone*.

The Annunciation, a most elegant picture, by *Frederico Barroche*.

One of the Seven Acts of Mercy, by *Schidone*.

The Beheading of St. John, by *Parmesan*.

The Virgin, with the infant Jesus, surrounded by Angels, in a landscape, a magnificent picture, by *Albano*.

Gamblers quarreling, larger than life, by *Michael Angelo di Caravagio*.

Sisyphus, Prometheus, Ixion, and Tantalus, four fine pieces of colossal proportions, by *Espagnaletto*.

Cadmus sowing the Dragon's Teeth which he had just killed, by *Salvator Rosa*.

The Ascension, by *Lanfranc*.

A very fine Sea-Fight, by *Tempesta*.

Cato killing himself, by *Carlo Lotti*.

A fine Landscape, with Jesus curing a sick person, by *Gaspard Poussin*.

Cain killing Abel, and Adam and Eve deploring his death. These two pieces may be esteemed the finest paintings of *Luca Giordano*.

The Rape of the Sabines, and the Judgement of Paris, by the same.

The Last Supper, one of the best works of *Tiepolo*.

A fine Landscape, by *Claude Lorraine*.

Laban pursuing Jacob, one of *Sebastian Bourdon's* best pictures.

The Magi worshiping Christ, likewise his own Portrait, by *Albert Durer*.

Portrait of a Man with a Guitar, by *Holbein*.

The Portrait of Luther, of his Wife, and many other pieces, by *Lucas Cranach*.

Christ upon the Cross, with a distant View of Jerusalem; Herodias at Table, and his Daughter bringing him St. John's Head; and four magnificent Landscapes, by *Rubens*.

Charles I. King of England, with his Queen, by *Vandyke*. This picture has been injured.

TRAVELS THROUGH DENMARK.

Christ blessing the Children, with a great many figures; and Susanna in the Bath; by *Jacob Jordans*.

Various kinds of Fruit, one of *Snyders*' best pictures, with many others, by the same hand.

Two Portraits of Women, finely executed by *Rembrandt*; likewise his own Portrait.

The Crucifixion. This picture has a fine effect: it was painted by *Gerbrand Van Eckhout*, and is equal to some of his master (*Rembrandt*)'s most esteemed works.

A Physician examining some Urine, which an old Woman has just brought him. This picture, though small, is very valuable, and is one of *Gerard Dow's* best paintings.

Fall of the Giants, and the Death of Niobe's Children, large as life, by *Abraham Bloemart*.

Jesus betrayed by Judas; (the effect of night is finely executed;) and many other pieces, by *Gerard Hondhorst*, termed in Italy *Gherardo della Notte*.

A variety of Pictures, amongst which is a Philosopher with a Skull, a fine piece, by *Henry Ditmar*, a Danish painter, who, though little known out of his own country, may be ranked amongst the first masters for his style of painting heads.

David with Goliath's Head, by *Franz Hals*.

A Banquet of the Gods. This picture is a beautifully-curious one, and is the work of *Corn. Poltenburg*.

A Miser weighing his Gold, and Death presenting him an Hour-Glass, to show him his Course is run; a master-piece of the great Dutch painter *Jean Steen*.

A Holy Family, a night-piece, the figures as large as life, by *Godfrey Schalken*. This picture is worthy to be placed next the famous piece by the same master in the gallery of Dusseldorf.

Sun-Rise, a large and beautiful landscape, by *J. Both*, esteemed that famous painter's master-piece.

Sun-Set. This landscape, though perhaps inferior to the preceding one, it's companion, is very charming, and was painted by *J. Hackert*.

A number of pieces, by the famous landscape-painter, *J. Ruissdael*.

A variety of Views of Norway, by *Everdingen*. Amongst these is a large Fall of Water. This piece is not in the least inferior to the finest paintings of *J. Ruissdael*.

A large Landscape, with hawking introduced, by *J. Wynants*.

A fine and beautiful Landscape, with women bathing, by *Herman Swaneveld*.

View of the Pont-Neuf, at Paris, during the Carnival: one of *Pierre Wouwerman's* best paintings.

Landscape, with a number of animals, by *P. Potter*.

View of Huerlem in winter, by *Beerstraten*.

View of the Rhine, by *Zachtleven*.

A Tempest, a fine piece, by *Backhuisen*.

A Sea Piece, with a number of ships of war, a large and magnificent picture, by *Dubbel*.

A large and beautiful Sea Piece, with many ships, and a distant View of Amsterdam, by *Silo*.

A Storm and Sea Fight, a fine picture, by *G. Vanderelde*.

The Inside of a Romish Church, the perspective admirably preserved, by *Steenwick*.

Two large pieces from the New Testament, in Rembrandt's style, the effect striking, by *Diedrich de Dresde*.

A Picture representing a Festival given at the Revolution of 1660, painted in 1666, by *Heienback*.

A piece in tapestry, worked in 1736, by *Leger*. This artist did not continue his profession.

The Presentation of our Saviour in the Temple, by *Fabricius*, 1668.

Portrait of Drackenbergh, a Norwegian, who died aged a hundred and forty-seven years, by *Blamensholm*.

A fine Landscape, with a View of the Rhine, by *Sqftleuen*.

An Allegory—Bacchus crowned, with Hercules in a corner of the picture, finely colored, by *Grosenburg*.

Christ before Pilate, in Vanderverf's style, by *Hubraken*.

A Woman selling birds; a Woman pouring out liquor, by *G. Mieris*.

*The Cabinet of Curiosities** joins the gallery, and consists of different rooms. In the first are a great many animals stuffed, amongst which are ant-eaters. A stag found with a gold collar, from which they pretend to infer, that he had lived many centuries; a lion, and an enormous white bear. A press containing different monsters and extraordinary fœtuses. A serpent (*coluber naja*.)

* There is a very good description of this cabinet, intitled, *Musæum Regium seu Catalogus*, &c. This work contains a great many engravings; but the first edition, printed in folio at Copenhagen, 1696, is not so complete as that published in 1710, and 1726, in two volumes folio; the engravings, however, are finer than those in the last-mentioned edition.

In another press there is an infant of eight months, found petrified in the mother's womb; a great quantity of petrifications, and different instruments formerly made use of in this country. There is a piece of native rough silver, next to the third press, more than five feet high, and from ten to fifteen inches diameter, weighing five thousand rix-dollars. There is another piece of two feet and a half, weighing two thousand rix-dollars, in the third press, which is filled with specimens of native silver from the mines in Norway; and it is impossible to see finer and in greater quantities. A piece of emerald ore. Crystals from Iceland; gold specimens likewise from Iceland, but in very small quantities. A large piece of quartz, filled with crystalized emeralds. A shell three feet long by eighteen inches broad, of the same kind as the holy-water shells of the church of St. Sulpice, at Paris, (*chama gigas imbricatu*, or *Grand Bénitier*, *Martini Conch. et Argenville*, p. 298,) and many others not so large. A quantity of stags' horns fixed into trunks of trees.

The fourth press contains a collection of shells, which, though very considerable, is not complete. A large Egyptian mummy, a good deal injured by time. The mummy of a child in very good preservation. Narval's head with two horns. An Arabian mummy dried in sand. Quantities of gold. The teeth of different animals. A great many bones, which they pretend to say were those of giants. An elephant's tooth, near eight feet long. A piece of amber, found in Jutland, which weighs more than twenty-seven pounds.

The second room contains four amber lustres. A variety of models of ships made in amber, ivory, tortoise-shell, mother of pearl, and silver. Beautiful works in ivory. An elbow-chair, with springs. A complete toilet, in amber, of curious workmanship; a large lustre of the same, with twenty four branches,

made by M. Spengler. A press entirely filled with pieces of wood, carved by the peasants in Norway, who are very ingenious in that particular. More models of ships, one in amber, and the rest in ivory. A portrait of Denner. An ivory compass, by Pierre Legrand. A piece of ivory prettily carved by queen Louisa, the late king's mother; others in the same style, by Pierre Legrand, the Emperors Leopold, Rodolphus II. &c. Jesus Christ upon the Cross, in wood, and of such exquisite workmanship, that it must be examined with a glass; said to be by Albert Durer. A carriage with six horses, incredibly small. A great quantity of work in ivory, finely executed, and in the prettiest taste, by Magnus Berg, a Norwegian, the most famous workman in that style. A cup of agate, from Iceland. The daughter of Denner. A large ivory jug, with Bacchus' Triumph, finely executed by Jacob Hollander, a Norwegian. A Descent from the Cross, a beautiful performance, by Magnus Berg. Many figures in foreign dresses, such as Indian, Chinese, &c. In another room are a variety of gold and silver vases. A rock-crystal decanter, with figures beautifully engraved upon it. A press filled with antique instruments of various sorts, for the use of the navy, for astronomers, and for different trades; another with sabres and Turkish armor. A golden horn, found underground in Jutland in 1639; many of the learned have written upon this article, and endeavoured to explain the hieroglyphics carved upon it*. Golden urns, found in Jutland: M. Spengler never saw any of the same sort. A

* Professor Muller, at Copenhagen, has been honored with a large medal from the academy, for his treatise on the two antique golden horns, one of which was broken and found in 1734. These were stolen some time ago, and afterwards melted down. This learned man looks upon them to be Celtiberian monuments, for the form of the letters engraved upon them is exactly the same as on the medals.

silver vase with eight sides, belonging to Queen Margaret; on each side there are the cyphers of her favorites, and likewise her own. An antique head of a woman in ivory; this is Greek workmanship, in excellent preservation, and perhaps the only one in that style in the world. Marcus Aurelius, an antique bust in bronze. A large horn in bronze. The famous horn of Oldenburg. A great many curious articles, antiquities found in this country. Bishop Absalon's skull, and all his clothes. Turkish trophies. The planetary system of Tycho Brahe. A shield of fine workmanship. A fine antique bust of Lucius Verus. In a fourth room figures in wax, quite in Curtius' style. An original portrait of Charles XII. exactly like the one belonging to Maréchal Stainville. Egyptian and Etruscan idols, &c. A room filled with the dresses, arms, and instruments made use of in foreign and little-known countries, such as different parts of India, Mexico, China, Greenland, Iceland, Norway, &c. A large model of an Indian pagoda, near Tranquebar. Large quantities of Idols from India. A fine collection of old china, brought over by the first Danish vessels employed in that trade, and which is now very scarce. A great many articles relative to the religion followed by the antient inhabitants of the North. A cabinet containing the portraits of different illustrious characters*.

The new gallery is near the king's apartments; it is a hundred and fifteen feet long, and seventy wide. It contains sixty pictures, viz.

* The King of Denmark has lately purchased the valuable collection of engravings relative to the history of that kingdom, which the late Mr. Muller passed half a century in making, and this, by means of an annuity of two hundred rix-dollars, granted to the daughter of the deceased.

This collection consists of twenty-five volumes in folio; a description of it was pub-

St. Sebastian, as large as life, by *Vandyke*.

A fine picture of Animals, by *Veenir*.

A Cavalry Fight, by *Huctenburg*.

A Hunting Piece, by *Snayers*.

Diana's Bath; whole lengths, as large as life, by *Honthorst*.

A fine picture of Gamesters, by the same.

The Women at the Sepulchre, full lengths, as large as life, a very fine picture, by *Ferdinand Bol*.

Nymphs who make the Horn taken from Hercules from the river Acheloüs into the Cornucopia; whole lengths, as large as life, by *Jordans*.

A fine Bull Hunting, by *Rosa di Tivoli*.

Christ before Pilate; whole lengths, as large as life, by *Arpino*.

Two small pictures, by *Vanderdoels*.

Two portraits, by *Ferdinand Bol*. The woman's is the best.

Antony and Cleopatra; whole lengths, as large as life, by *Rudens*.

The Mocking at our Saviour, as large as life, by *Henry Terbrugge*.

A Hermit finding the body of the Danish Prince Sweuo, killed in the Holy Land; the figure as large as life, and acknowledged to be the master-piece of *Carl van Malder* the younger.

The Cretans bringing the Goat Amalthea for the infant Jupiter to suck, as large as life, by *Carlo Lotti*.

An Allegory upon the Fine Arts, by *Pietro Liberi*, in his best style, and as large as life.

A great Festival, with a number of figures, and very rich architecture, by *Paul Veronese*, or rather from his school.

Alexander going to espouse Roxana, large as life, by *Van Lint*; the design by *Raphaël*.

Christ at Table with the Disciples at Emmaus, by *Rembrandt*.

Moses by the burning Bush, by *Nicolas Poussin*.

The Angel showing the Spring to Agar, by *François Milé*.

Diana in the Bath, a very fine landscape, by *Peter Ruisbrach*.

A Naval Fight between the Spaniards and Dutch, by *Adam Willarts*.

A Sea Fight of the Dutch against the combined Fleets of England and France, by *L. Backuysen*.

A Sea Fight between the Turks and Maltese Galleys, by *J. Lingelbach*.

lished at Copenhagen, in 1797, with the following title: *Pinacotheca Dano Norvegica ære incisæ collecta et in ordinem redacta a Frederico Adams Muller*.

The ceiling of this gallery was painted in Italy, and is in pretty good preservation. It likewise contains some very indifferent busts of the royal family.

The square picture saloon, next to the gallery, has forty-seven pictures. The following are the most remarkable:—

Our Saviour crowned with Thorns, between two Soldiers, by *Jacques Bassan*.

Holy Family, by the *Parmesan*.

The Annunciation, a very fine piece, the figures as large as life, by *Augustino Masucci*.

A superb weeping Magdalen, by *Guido Reni*.

St. Cecilia playing upon the Organ, by *Carlo Dolce*.

Holy Family, large as life, by *Carlo Cignani*.

A Landscape, with figures, by *Benedetto Castiglione*.

The Judgement of Solomon, a piece well known by the print, and one of *Rubens'* finest pictures.

A Lady seated, reading a Letter, by *Rembrandt*.

A fine Landscape, with all kinds of Animals; one of *Roland Savery's* best pictures.

View of a Church, by *Steinwick*.

A Portrait, by *Giorgione*.

The knight's chamber* is a hundred and eighteen feet by fifty-eight, with nine windows. There are thirty-four lustres, and more than twelve hundred wax-lights upon days of ceremony. It has a gilt gallery at the top, and forty-four channeled wooden columns, with gilt bases and chapiters. When all the pictures shall be finished, there will be eleven at the bottom, and twelve at the top. A painter named Abilgaard is employed to finish one every year, for which he is paid one thousand rix-dollars. The subject is taken from the history of Denmark.

* This chamber was entirely consumed in the great fire of 1795.

This chamber joins the prince royal's apartments, which are not worth seeing. One of the rooms has a great many holes in the floor, made with the but-end of a musket, the prince having amused himself for a length of time with learning his exercise.

The king's apartments are perfectly plain, and he holds his court in a long gallery, with nothing particular to distinguish it.

The castle chapel is handsome; it is a long square, and richly ornamented; a great part in marble. We thought the light not equally distributed, which has a bad effect. The library and arsenal, which we are going to mention, join the castle.

*The king's library** contains about a hundred and thirty thousand volumes, and three thousand manuscripts. We were first shown into a gallery, two hundred and thirty-two feet in length, which joins a cabinet, in which the manuscripts and other valuable articles are kept. Francis I.'s Primer, with colored prints, bought from Colber's library, very fine. A breviary upon vellum. Four large volumes of plants, painted upon vellum from nature, at Gottorp: these are thought to be the work of Madame Merian, a Swiss, sixty years ago; they are beautifully executed, and in high preservation. Livy, a manuscript of the tenth century, in one volume, and that incomplete. The Duke of Burgundy's Prayer Book, with colored prints, and in good condition: he was killed before Nancy. Cardinal de Bourbon's Prayer Book, with colored prints: he lived in

* The addition of several new purchases, and that of Mr. Suhm's collection, have since increased the number of volumes to two hundred and sixty thousand. Three thousand rix-dollars are annually appropriated for buying books. This library also contains a collection of prints and pictures, and since 1793, it has been opened to the public on particular days.

the reign of Lewis XI. A Danish Chronicle, in verse, by Storeman, believed to be of the fifteenth century. There are likewise all the manuscripts brought by the traveler Niebulir, consisting of at least two hundred and fifty: he was living in 1791, and resided at Meldorf, in Holstein. A Malabar Bible, complete. The collection of the history of Spain is very complete; also that of part of India. We next entered a cabinet sixty feet by more than thirty, with a gallery of two stories, and then went on to another with a double gallery; this is called the North Library, and has a gallery all round it. The most antient Danish Bible is in folio, and was printed in 1550, at Copenhagen. St. Paul's Epistles, in folio; Roschild, 1534. Iceland Bible; Holoum, 1584; another, 1644. A Psalter in duodecimo; Roschild, 1531. Psalter in four languages*, Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Chaldee; Cologne, 1518. A Greek and Latin Psalter*; Milan, 1481. Office of the Virgin, a duodecimo manuscript upon vellum, ornamented with beautiful paintings; indeed it is impossible to see any thing finer; date unknown. Cicero de Officiis; Rome, Swenheym and Panhards, 1471. Idem, Fust, Mayence*, 1465 and 1466; the two copies in good condition. Idem, Rome*, Pet. de Max. 1469. Idem, Venice*, 1470: the five editions in round letters. First edition of Justinian, no date: the first with a date is of Rome*, 1470: these are both fine. Livy; Rome*, 1468. Idem, Spire, 1469. Idem*, 1470. Two editions of Virgil*, without date: in the one, said to be the first, there are nine verses in the last page, with *incipit*

* The books marked with an asterisk are all in Lord Spencer's library, and in the finest preservation: the edition of Virgil, without date, with the nine verses in the last page, indeed, is not in the number; but the small folio edition of the Duc de la Villiers' library, that of Rome, 1469, and that of Venice, 1470, are all there.

feliciter at the second line of the beginning. Fourth edition of Virgil, Louvain, 1476: the third is not here. Terence*, without a date. Idem, Cologne, 1471. Idem, without date*, the verses not separated. Plautus*, 1472, at Venice, very fine. De Civitate Dei*, of St. Augustin, 1467, Venice, complete, and in good condition. This library has a fund of four thousand rix-dollars.

The Land Arsenal cannot be seen without an order from the general who is at the head of this department. The artillery for sieges, and the field-pieces are kept upon the ground-floor; the latter are twelve, six, and three-pounders. There is a gallery upon the first floor, four hundred and six feet long, containing musketry and other arms, all in good order; likewise some Swedish colors and antient pieces of artillery in different shapes. Above are the caissons and waggons, which are let down by a kind of bridge placed for that purpose. Still higher are storehouses for the train of artillery; these are separated by casements for each battery, which consists of eight cannon. The old arms, after being repaired, are kept in the third story.

The Storehouse for Pontoons contains forty, which are coppered both on the in and outside: these weigh, when properly furnished, two thousand pounds, and are drawn by six horses: they are eighteen feet long, and cost from seven to eight hundred rix-dollars. There are likewise smaller pontoons, four of which may be conveyed in a waggon: these are all in good condition, and fit for immediate use. There is another arsenal at Christiana, for Norway; and a third at Rendsburg, for Holstein. The former has thirty-two pontoons like those above-mentioned, and the latter has some made of wood. The arsenal at Copenhagen only supplies Denmark, properly so called; and

the armament usually lasts, during a peace, from eighteen to twenty years. General Classen provides cannon-balls and powder, which costs the king eighteen rix-dollars the quintal: and Count Schimmelmann, muskets, swords, &c*.

The Castle of Rosenburg† is a gothic edifice near the ramparts,

* A vast manufactory established at Fredericswaerk, in Zealand, furnishes bronze cannon, howitzers, mortars, bombs, balls, and gun-powder, for the army and navy. In the interval between 1762 and 1779, this manufactory sent out no less than nine hundred pieces of cannon, mortars, and howitzers, with twenty thousand bombs and grenades, and three million pounds of gunpowder. There is also a cannon foundry at Moss, in Norway.

† The following description was given me by a traveler, who is extremely accurate in his relations, and who was fortunate enough to be allowed free access into this castle, which is small and very antient. The wall which forms the front is very thick, and in the middle of it is a passage so contrived, that two persons placed at the two farthest ends of the castle can converse together in a low voice, and be heard very distinctly. An extremely large saloon occupies almost the whole of the first floor; it is hung round with twelve pieces of fine tapestry, and the ceiling is plaister in *relievo*. On this are represented battalions of infantry, companies of cavalry, and troops of peasants, all in the national dress, and so extremely well executed, that not one part of the costume is omitted. In the same saloon are three very fine silver lions, which are placed round the throne at the coronation, a large silver dish on a stand, used at the christening of the children belonging to the royal family, and twelve fine bronze busts of Roman emperors. Three cabinets join the saloon. The first contains various pieces of crystal, presents from the republic of Venice. In the second are cases filled with different articles in gold and silver plate, and paintings in enamel: two gold boxes presented by the city of London and the Goldsmiths' Company, to Christian VII., are remarkably fine; the embossed figures upon them are very elegant, and extremely well executed. There is likewise a silver arm chair, and an ivory throne under a square canopy, both used at the coronation of the kings of Denmark. The third cabinet contains the king's gold plate (three hundred pounds' weight), a saddle ornamented with diamonds, &c. &c. The dresses worn by the different kings of Denmark, are kept in a small room between the floors; that in which Christian IV. appeared at a sea-fight, where he lost an eye by the splinter of a mast, is likewise there; it is a dark red velvet, of a small pattern, a little cap of the same stuff in the form of a calot; his laced cravat, and the handkerchief he bound round the wound; the whole spotted with blood.—The cabinet of medals is par-

and is employed as a jewel-office. It contains all those belonging to the crown, and many valuable articles, such as diamonds, gold-plate, &c. This place is difficult to see, for the king always keeps the key in his own private closet, and the marshal of the court is obliged to attend upon the occasion, not daring to confide it to the care of any one. There are, besides the jewels, other articles of less importance to be seen; likewise some pictures, which may be viewed at any time by giving a ducat to the person who attends upon the occasion. The public walk joins this castle: it is not particularly interesting, with only a few very moderate groupes and statues. Next to it are barracks for the foot-guards; these are lately built: likewise a covered place for exercising, near four hundred feet long.

Charlottenburg Castle is a large building upon the market-place: this is principally dedicated to the Royal Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture. There are eight professors and four masters, who, when we were there, had three hundred pupils. Upon quitting the rooms where they worked, we went into two or three others furnished with drawings by the young people, and also with a few pictures by the professors. We did not, however, see any thing particularly striking. Those pupils who carry off the prize of the large gold medal, travel at the king's expence. The public assembly for distributing the prizes takes place on the thirty-first of March, which is prince Frederic's birth-day, who is the patron of this academy.

The Botanical Garden is behind this castle; it is under the care

particularly interesting, and the medals being placed in glass cases, are very easy to examine. Indeed, this collection is exhibited to the greatest advantage, and much superior to any other of the kind.

of Mr. Rottboll, who keeps it in very fine order. The following are among the most curious plants:—

Ariëtria regina (which has been in flower).
Dionæa muscipula.
Pentapetes superfolia.
Ankuba Japonica.
Lycium Japonicum.
Tradescantia discolor.
Lichénis corinea.
Dracæna fera.
Dracæna draconis grandis, cum septem aliis palmis.
Laurus camphora.

Myrtus pimenta.
Thea Bohea.
Daphne Indica.
Mammea Americana.
Hippomane mancinella.
Hedysarum gyrans.
Solandra grandiflora.
Solandra speciosa.
Hypsochus monastachius.
Kyllingia umbellata Rottboll.
Hedysarum pictum.
Arum pictum.

The following exotic plants have not suffered from the Copenhagen climate:—

Erica Mediterranea.
Erica multiflora.
Daphne laureola.
Daphne cneorum.
Daphne Alpina.
Guilandina diœcia.
Gaultheria procumbens.
Thea viridis.
Lagerstrœmia Indica.
Phytolaca decandria.
Biguonia radicans.
Magnolia glauca.
Magnolia acuminata.
Magnolia grandiflora.
Passiflora.
Cœrulea *fc.* *luteo*.

Hibiscus palustris.
Gynkgo biloba.
Morus papyriferus.
Calycanthus floridus.
Aristolochia longa.
Melianthus majus et minus.
Rhus vernix.
Vitex agnus castus.
Trolius Asiaticus.
Cineraria maritima.
Juca gloriosa.
Clematis viorna.
Idem Orientalis.
Idem Virginiana.
Idem Crispa.

The original of the *Flora Danica* may be likewise seen, and is a very fine botanical work.

The Observatory is upon the top of a round tower.* We mounted the greatest part of the way by an ascent without steps; and from thence to the summit of a small wooden staircase. A carriage can go as far as this place, but not to the platform, which some, in their descriptions of it, say may be done. The instruments are in good condition and kept very clean, though it appears they are frequently used. We saw a quadrant with a radius of six feet, and two divisions, to make the exactness of the observation more certain. This instrument, with many others, is placed upon marble pillars, and bears upon a vault. An astronomical circle of four Danish feet, also with two divisions. An astronomical pendulum. The largest telescope is twelve Danish feet in length: it magnifies the object eight hundred times, and the farthest point of view to be seen from the Observatory is eight miles. They have contrived a machine for the body of the glass, which prevents it from being bent. This establishment commenced in 1780, and all the instruments are made by *Alh* at Copenhagen. They are now employed in making astronomical maps of all Denmark; and the whole will amount at the least to twenty. Seven were finished at the end of 1790. An astronomical observer† is to direct every thing relating to the latitudes and longitudes; and there are likewise to be twelve land-measures to fill them up, with a designer and

* This tower was erected in 1637, after a plan given by Longomontanus. It is sixty feet in diameter, and a hundred and fifty feet high. Kütnér and Busching do not agree with us in this measurement; the former stating the diameter to be seventy feet, and the height a hundred and twenty; and the latter fifty-four in diameter, and a hundred and fifteen in height. The inscription is semi-hieroglyphical, explained as follows:—*Doctrinum et justitiam dirige, Ichova, in Cordem Coronati Christiani quarti 1642.*

† The learned Bugge, whose observations are sent to the Marine Chart Office to be printed.

engraver. The engraving of each plate costs four hundred rix-dollars, and four thousand copies may be struck off without retouching the plate. The price of the map is four marks.

The Library belonging to the University * is in the tower of the Observatory, upon Trinity church, forming a very large long square. This contains about four thousand volumes, the greatest part of which are law and divinity. There are likewise two thousand manuscripts, many of them Icelandic ;† and a great collection of diplomas taken out of monasteries, particularly St. Mary's at Roschild, by Waldemar the First, in Rhunic characters. A Danish Bible, Copenhagen, 1550. A Hungarian Bible, 1626, Strygon Tyrnavé. New Testament, Lamulice, Tranquebar, 1758, with characters of the Danish mission. Bohemian Bible, Amsterdam 1596. Lithuanian Bible, Kacaurazure 1735. Manuale Laponicum, Stockholm 1648. Eight hundred crowns are allowed to this library annually, to be employed in buying books.

The Academy for Land Cadets, where a hundred and four boys, not under ten years old, are educated ; fifty of whom are at the king's expence, and the rest pay their own pensions, which is eighty-six rix-dollars for officers' children, and one hundred and fifty for burgesses. The latter in general learn the quickest, which proceeds undoubtedly from their parents being in more easy circumstances than the others, which enables them to pay more attention to the early part of their children's education. The hundred and four pupils are formed into four divi-

* This library is so augmented, that Mr. Catteau makes the number of books amount to sixty thousand.

† Most of these are the bequest of Amus Magnæus, who at the same time left a fund, the annual profit of which is to be employed in printing the Icelandic ones. The learned of Copenhagen have already published several.

sions, in each of which is an inferior officer chosen from among the cadets, and who afterwards enters into a regiment with the rank of officer; a general at the head, with a captain and lieutenant, one of whom is always at the academy. The youth are taught every thing necessary for the military profession, and also the French language. They all sleep in one large room at the top of the house, and are employed in their studies from eight to twelve before dinner, and from two to six afterwards. They are allowed two crowns a month for pocket-money, and for other trifling articles not provided by the establishment. They have a good table kept for them. There is a riding-house in the academy, and eight horses for the use of the scholars.

CHAP. III.

Elsineur.—Cronenburg.—Manufactory for Arms.—The Toll at the Passage of the Sound.

ELSINEUR is six miles from Copenhagen; the road is extremely fine, and we went it with the same horses. At about half way of this stage we passed close to Hirschholm, a royal castle, upon a small lake, with pretty gardens; next to which is Sophienburg, belonging to the prince royal. This is built upon a high terrace on the sea-shore, and the view from it is charming. Those who wish to see Fredensburg must turn to the left a little beyond Sophienburg. The queen-dowager resides at this castle, which is a handsome house, with fine gardens, and every thing in a good style. The prince-royal is making a garden and a beautiful plantation at Marienlust, near Elsineur, from which he will enjoy a magnificent view of the Sound, the Cattegat, and the opposite coast. The road from Copenhagen to Elsineur passes sometimes by the sea-side, and sometimes through small woods. The peasants' houses are in great numbers, and make a very good appearance.

Fredericksburg, four Danish miles from Copenhagen, is the most considerable castle belonging to the royal family. It is very antient, large, and handsome, with three courts before it, separated from each other by bridges. The bridge which leads to the third court is of stone, and in the form of an S; as is likewise one of wood in the garden. The chapel is particularly worthy of notice; it is on the left side of the castle, and the kings of Denmark are crowned in this place. The form of the altar is not good, but both that and the pulpit are of silver, and their workmanship very fine. The chapel is surrounded by a gallery, ornamented by large pictures between the windows; many of these are extremely fine, particularly Jonas preaching at Nineveh, by Salvator Rosa. There are likewise some others by Andrew Peters, a Danish painter, but unfortunately they are not placed advantageously, there being no possibility of viewing them, without being either too near, or at too great a distance. The king's throne, and the escutcheons of the knights of the elephant, hung upon crimson velvet, are in the gallery over the altar. The king's gallery is facing it, and occupies the whole of the bottom of the chapel. This is divided into different closets, one of which is for the noblemen belonging to the court. It is full of very fine, though small pictures upon copper; so numerous indeed are these, that not only the walls, but, I believe, even the ceiling is covered by them.

The Chapters of the order of Danebrog are held in this castle, in a vaulted hall appropriated to the order. The knight's chamber is on the second floor; it is remarkably large, and paved with black and white marble. The chimney-piece is of black marble, and was formerly adorned by silver figures, representing the twelve Apostles. These were carried off by Charles XII. The holes, where the nails were fixed, still remain, and serve as

mementos of the spoiling hand of the conqueror. This castle was built by Christian IV. and is two Danish miles from Hirschholm.

Fredensburg (the castle of peace) is only one Danish mile from Fredericksburg, and two from Elsinour. This was the residence of Queen Juliana, the widow of Frederic V., and mother-in-law of Christian VII.

The castle is very low, and has nothing to recommend it but the garden, which is really fine. Facing the castle is a parterre, surrounded by statues, and, on each side, a marble amphitheatre, inclosed by a rail, on which are four escutcheons, representing the four principal possessions belonging to Denmark. On the sides of the amphitheatre are four groups, and, at the bottom, a handsome triumphal arch, which, though only of wood representing marble, has a very fine effect. Behind is a large lake, which serves as a boundary to the garden. A grove of trees spreads to the left, towards the triumphal arch, in which is a platform in the form of an amphitheatre, surrounded by three rows of statues, (nearly a hundred,) as large as life, representing the peasants of Norway and Finmark, or Danish Lapland, in the dress of their country. In the centre of this platform is a high marble pillar.

Elsinour is tolerably well built, with about six thousand inhabitants, all of whom subsist by trade, by the customs, by fishing, &c. It contains many English houses; and all commercial nations upon the Baltic have consuls here, the greatest part of whom gain by the vexations experienced by the captains, instead of preventing their ill treatment. The avidity of the merchants in this place is wonderful; and so indeed is that of the custom-house officers, and the boatmen who go to fetch the captains from their ships. These frequently insist upon four, and even six rix-dollars for a short passage of an hun-

dred or two hundred fathoms, and sometimes do not keep the agreement they have made: in fact, they oppress foreigners in the most tyrannical manner. If any complaints be made, redress is never obtained for the vexatious conduct of the custom-house officers, which gives good reason to believe they act under secret orders. If we wished to support the opinion we have just advanced, we might quote the anecdote of the Marquis de Pons, our ambassador in Sweden, and, indeed, some others of the same nature, not very honorable to the Danish government, at least not to that exercised in this place.

Cronenburg, or Cronborg, is a large castle, built nearly square, two hundred and thirty-two feet long, by two hundred and fourteen deep. It was formerly a royal castle, but is now made into a fortress to defend the passage of the Sound*. All men of war are obliged to salute it as they pass, and the garrison consists of about three hundred men. Malefactors and galley-slaves are confined here, and compelled to work. This fortress is fortified all round with two hundred and ten cannon; but then it is likewise commanded by the adjacent country. The casemates are rather handsome, though not sufficiently high; there is room for nearly two thousand men; and a rix-dollar is given to the soldiers who show them. The governor's apartment is the same in which Queen Matilda was confined. In the middle of the castle is a tolerably large square court, flanked with four towers, three of which are round, and one square: this last has been the longest built. The prospect is delightful, and presents to the view the coast of Sweden, at less than a league distant, the two seas, a variety of islands, and vessels continually passing to and from them, for at least seven or eight

* These fortifications have been since greatly strengthened.

months in the year. M. Aubert, a Frenchman, was commandant of Cronenburg at the time we were there.

In 1790, a captain of a Bourdeaux vessel thought proper to hoist the tri-colored flag; and the opinion of the Danish government on the French revolution being at that time not decidedly known, they took the liberty of pulling it down upon his refusal to strike it, though he had been frequently sent to upon the occasion*.

M. Schimmelmann's *Manufactory of Arms* is a league from Elsinour, and ought to be visited. It is very considerable, and supplies the whole Danish army. There is a colony established here of nearly five hundred people, including women and children; and eight thousand muskets may be made in a year. The masters pay their workmen, and the inspector has nothing to do with the latter. There are, in the whole, thirty-four master-workmen, thirty-five journeymen, who are married men, and seventy-six who are not, with twenty apprentices; five masters for forging the barrels; nine locksmiths; seven stock-makers; one master for casting the mountings; another for filing and finishing them, (comprising the brass-work;) another to case-harden the locks; a ditto for beating out the thin plates for making the barrels, ram-rods, bayonets, and sword blades; this workman is emphatically called the *master of the great hammer*,

* It would have been an act of justice to have punished this captain upon his return into his own country, for having, through his fault, exposed the dignity of his nation to contempt. All people ought to submit to the laws of the country in which they are. This same captain, when at Stockholm, wished to be dressed out in his national uniform, the novelty of which delighted him as much as a child would have been with a doll, or any other plaything; but knowing the king had forbidden this uniform to be worn, he took it into his head to ask leave to put it on at a masked ball, to which his majesty replied—"Oh! with all my heart, at a masquerade, but no where else."

and earns the most of any: ~~one~~ who files and polishes the bayonets, and puts the muskets together: he has ten workmen under him: one for forging the worm for the ramrods; and another for making the iron mountings for the muskets sent to Guinea. One furnace forges five barrels in a day; there are seven in all, with two workmen to each. The masters are employed to buy all the articles, such as charcoal, wood, and iron, which cost four skellings a pound. All the iron comes from Norway; it is not always very good; and that from Sweden is much better, but it is contraband. The masters of the forge are paid four marks and a half for each barrel for the king, and four for one sent to Guinea; six for boring a barrel, and four for re-casting it. Twenty-four steel plates of different sizes are requisite for boring a barrel for the king, and the muskets for his service are all four feet and a half long; the bayonet seventeen inches, and twenty with the socket. The barrels for the king are three feet three inches long, and those for Guinea four feet one inch; notwithstanding which there are two pounds more of iron in the former. The stocks, properly finished, cost three marks for the make of each. One man may bore ten barrels in a day, or polish from twenty to twenty-four; and he is paid three skellings for boring, and two for polishing.

All the brass mounting is cast. A lock for exportation to Guinea, if polished, costs three marks and a half, and for the king six marks. One person may put together twenty muskets in a day, and he receives two skellings for those for the king: a good workman may finish three or four muskets in a day, for which he receives one mark each:—by finishing is meant brightening the barrel on the outside, putting the sight, the breech, the touch-hole, and the loops.

The master of the hammer pays thirty-six skellings for the

ramrods; thirty skellings for bayonets; four marks for the common sword blades for the infantry; six for the cavalry; and seven for the hussars. He has from six to eight workmen under him, and has had at times fourteen. Muskets with bayonets cost the king eight crowns eighty-six skellings each, and the soldiers' swords three crowns. All persons employed in this manufacture have houses found them, and those houses repaired by M. de Schimmelmann, who is supposed to gain at least two crowns by each musket. The masters earn one or two rix-dollars a day, and an able workman may gain three marks.

We could not but be extremely surprised at there being no fixed price for the passage of the Sound. Perhaps this circumstance may be occasioned by it's separating two different kingdoms which might not agree upon the subject; however, each state ought, at least, to have a settled rate on it's own side, to prevent travelers the inconvenience of being forced to make a bargain beforehand, in which they are often cheated, and always at the mercy of the most interested and covetous men in the world. We paid for embarking a large carriage and passing the bridge two rix-dollars two marks, besides seven rix-dollars for the boat. Upon quitting Elsinour to go to the port, we passed the custom-house; but those who leave the kingdom are not examined. We only showed our passport, and did the same thing when we landed.

*The Toll at the Sound.**—Near Cronburg there is a tolerably

* The Sound divides Zealand from Skåne. In the broadest part it is five Danish miles wide, and in the narrowest only 1331 fathom, as measured over the ice.

commodious road for ships, near a league and a half broad; it is the only passage for entering the Baltic, the Lesser Belt being not sufficiently deep, and the Great Belt filled with rocks hidden by the water. The Sound itself is of a great depth. The Danish government has erected light-houses in every dangerous part; there are likewise other lights in different places upon the coast to guide sailors in dark and stormy nights; and these very precautions were the original cause of the toll exacted from the foreign vessels which pass through this arm of the sea. The traders at first consented to pay a moderate sum for keeping up these useful light-houses, and this free and indeterminate contribution is now become a real duty. The kings of Denmark afterwards made various agreements with every nation in particular for the rate of this duty, which at first varied according to the circumstance of the times, and has since been both increased and diminished. The different commercial nations of Europe having by several treaties acquiesced in the toll of the Sound, it is no longer possible to refuse paying what is exacted; and it is become an incontestable right, which will continue till the European powers agree among themselves to abolish it. This toll makes a very considerable branch of the revenue belonging to the crown of Denmark; and every one is obliged to pay it in specie. The duty is received upon the ships separately, and likewise on the merchandise they carry. The taxes upon the vessels (properly called port-duties) amount to thirty-six French livres three sols; at least that is the case for French ships*. Vessels belonging to the Hanse towns are taxed the highest:

* It has even been exacted, that the king of France's lighters should be regarded as trading vessels; and this has been the case; but is much disapproved by all reasonable people.

and their port-duty amounts sometimes to 103 French livres ten sols.

As to the article of merchandise, the favored nations, such as France, Spain, England, Sweden, Holland, Portugal, and Naples, pay one per cent., one with another, of their value in the places from whence they came. The other countries, among which the Danes are included, pay a quarter and upwards. The customs of the Sound brought in 2,475,000 livres French money in 1786; and the author of this note was assured that in 1789 they amounted to 3,000,000 livres. The vessels are not examined; and they trust to the captain's declaration, who receives four per cent. from the customs, of the tax levied upon the merchandise he declares. This method was adopted to induce the captains to be very exact with respect to the value of their cargoes. The papers of these ships are expedited very quickly, and do not take up, one with another, more than three or four hours. Each vessel brings in from fifty to sixty rix-dollars to the customs; and there were more than 9000 passed through in 1790, which must amount to above 500,000 bank rix-dollars, making more than 600,000 current.*

An Explanation of the Measures at the Sound.

1st. They reckon, at the customs at the Sound, a hogshead of brandy from Bourdeaux at thirty velts (gauging rods), and ditto from Charente at twenty-seven.

* Twelve thousand one hundred and twelve vessels passed through the Sound in 1796.—9048 in 1800, and 7140 in 1806.—Of these 2665 came from the North Sea, and 3535 from the Baltic. Among the number were 2566 English vessels; 1817 Danish; 1764 Swedish; 809 American; 119 Oldenburg; 117 Russian; 100 Rostock; 79 Bremen; 61 Lubeck; 53 Hamburg, and 30 Portuguese.

- 2d. A pipe, at double the hogshead, and weighing 900 pounds.
- 3d. A sack of chesnuts at three bushels.
- 4th. The rix-dollar in specie, equivalent to five French livres seven sols.
- 5th. A hogshead of capers, olives, and other articles of the kind by weight, from four to 700 pounds.
- 6th. A case or chest of oranges and lemons at the rate of 300 pieces.
- 7th. The schippund is here received as 300 pounds.
- 8th. A bale of paper at ten reams.
- 9th. The measures of apples and pears are the same as in France.
- 10th. A last of salt differs here as follows:—Twenty-eight Saint-Martin's muids, ditto Rochefort, ditto Rochelle, &c. are equivalent to thirteen lasts; and ten muids from Honfleur to, and including St Malo's, thirteen lasts. Thirteen Dunkirk *razières* (a measure of 280 pounds) are equivalent to one last, and ten Havre muids to twelve lasts.
- 11th. A hogshead of turpentine is reckoned at the rate of from eight to nine hundred pounds.

An Explanation of the Weights at the Sound.

- 1st. The centner is equal to our quintal of 100 pounds.
- 2d. The schippund is 320 pounds.
- 3d. A last of oats is twelve barrels.
- 4th. A case or chest of wax candles from fifty to sixty pounds.
- 5th. A hogshead of pitch, and of liquid pitch and tar, is estimated at from 120 to 150 pounds.
- 6th. A barrel of ashes is from about 600 to 640 pounds.

- 7th. A last is six schippundls, or 1920 French pounds.
 8th. A sack of wax weighs about 600 pounds.
 9th. A last of ropes, the same as one of hemp; that is to say, nearly 1920 pounds.
 10th. A last of tow is double the weight.
 11th. A last of wheat makes twenty barrels or tons of eight bushels.
 12th. A last of hemp and flax-seed of twenty-four barrels, each of which is from 150 to 160 pounds.
 13th. A hogshead of hemp-oil weighs from 300 to 320 pounds.
 14th. A sack of wool about six or 700 pounds.
 15th. A last of flax is the double of one of hemp.
 16th. A sbhock contains sixty pieces.
 17th. A last of barley weighs the same as one of wheat.
 18th. A sack of feathers about 600 pounds.
 19th. A last of pease is twelve barrels.
 20th. A last of rye is twenty barrels.
 21st. A last of soot is six schippunds.
 22d. A barrel of tobacco weighs 910 pounds.
 23d. A packet of sail-cloth contains from two to three pieces.
 24th. Each barrel of vitriol weighs about 600 pounds.

*A Recapitulation of the Commerce betwixt France and the Baltic,
 in the Space of fourteen Years.*

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
1777	264 Vessels	380	644
1778	237	299	536
1779	198	193	391

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Total.
1780	301	227	528
1781	248	267	515
1782	281	551	832
1783	315	301	616
1784	281	404	685
1785	370	553	923
1786	382	491	873
1787	374	545	919
1788	333	486	819
1789	362	508	870
1790	261	351	612
<hr/>			
Total of 14 Years .	4207	5556	9763
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Statement of the Ships which passed through the Sound from the Year 1777 to the Year 1790.

	NAVES OF THE NATIONS.	YEAR 1777.	YEAR 1778.	YEAR 1779.	YEAR 1780.	YEAR 1781.	YEAR 1782.	YEAR 1783.	YEAR 1784.	YEAR 1785.	YEAR 1786.	YEAR 1787.	YEAR 1788.	YEAR 1789.	YEAR 1790.	TOTAL of each NATION.
1.	Americans	3	9	10	18	24	34	42	44	194
2.	English	2552	2046	1651	1701	2021	1264	2862	3225	2534	2771	2977	3272	3501	3788	36165
3.	Bremen	82	98	136	146	231	210	963	258	183	127	141	17	181	177	2424
4.	Courlanders	2	1	5	7	9	11	10	16	24	9	5	5	5	22	131
5.	Danes	1110	1214	1263	1341	1588	1634	1796	1673	1690	1536	1299	1259	1343	1559	20454
6.	Dantzickers	231	193	198	174	226	218	202	192	161	170	205	169	186	248	2789
7.	Spaniards	10	12	8	2	19	15	12	9	15	23	32	162
8.	Austrian Flemings	5	10	16	30	95	505	533	164	60	68	63	79	107	6	1747
9.	French	21	2	8	25	20	19	35	64	111	123	427
10.	Genoese	2	2
11.	Hamburgers	22	17	31	31	54	50	57	74	62	45	80	71	62	104	760
12.	Dutch	2567	2406	2030	2058	11	16	510	1356	1571	1407	1374	1513	1924	2009	20861
13.	Lubeckers	78	70	74	82	90	112	125	70	77	81	68	64	83	89	1163
14.	Neapolitans	1	5	6
15.	Oldenburgers	24	24
16.	Portuguese	12	6	21	21	46	38	29	38	28	19	17	16	33	30	348
17.	Prussians	472	480	666	671	1507	1907	2086	1405	1355	763	834	931	943	698	14658
18.	Rostockers	79	112	68	104	80	80	118	56	114	87	71	171	224	339	1719
19.	Russians	47	46	57	43	167	147	137	121	113	85	102	61	..	6	1076
20.	Swedes	1773	1757	2009	1880	2212	2111	2474	2170	2141	1778	2406	1315	53	430	24539
21.	Venetians	2	1	3	2	1	4	1	2	6	24
Total of each year.		9038	8476	8273	8201	8281	8375	11233	10867	10183	9000	9750	9216	8823	9734	1930-

A General Table of the Baltic Trade in 1789.

In the course of this Year, 4472 Vessels passed through the
Sound to enter the Baltic, viz. 4472

Cargoes.

<i>Brandy, Vinegar, and Geneva.</i> Two from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 6 from Bremen and Hamburg, 13 from Holland, 9 from France, and 1 from Spain— Total	31
<i>Different kinds of Wines.</i> One hundred and thirty-five from France, 10 from Portugal, 9 from Spain, 4 from Italy and the Mediterranean—Total	158
<i>English Beer.</i> From the British Islands	27
<i>Various Fruits.</i> One from Bremen and Hamburg, 3 from Holland, 1 from Austrian Flanders, 3 from Portugal, 3 from Spain, 3 from Italy and the Mediterranean—Total	14
<i>Olive Oil.</i> Three from Austrian Flanders, 3 from the British Islands, 1 from Italy and the Mediterranean— Total	7
<i>Sugar and Syrup (Treacle).</i> Six from Danish ports, 5 from Bremen and Hamburg, 2 from Holland, 4 from France, 3 from Portugal, 1 from Spain, 1 from Italy and the Mediterranean—Total	22
<i>Coffee.</i> Two from Holland, 1 from Austrian Flanders, and 9 from France—Total	12

<i>Salt.</i> Thirty-five from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 28 from Danish ports, 2 from Bremen and Hamburg, 26 from Holland, 4 from Austrian Flanders, 36 from the British Islands, 71 from France, 45 from Portugal, 65 from Spain, 26 from Italy and the Mediterranean— Total	378
<i>Herrings, Fish, Whale Oil and Blubber.</i> Two hundred and fifty-seven from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 161 from Danish ports, 4 from Friesland, 9 from Hol- land—Total	431
<i>Iron.</i> One from Swedish ports, 54 from Danish ports, 2 from Holland, 1 from the British Islands—Total	58
<i>Lead, Pewter, Copper, Steel, and Tin.</i> One from Danish ports, 14 from the British Islands—Total	15
<i>Glass and Earthen Ware.</i> Three from Danish ports, 2 from Holland, 3 from the British Islands, 1 from France —Total	9
<i>Stone, Brick, and Marble.</i> One from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 2 from Danish ports, 1 from Bremen and Hamburg, 28 from Friesland, 37 from Holland, 7 from the British Islands—Total	96
<i>Plaster and Cement.</i> Two from Holland	2
<i>Grains, Malt, Rye, Oatmeal, and Rice.</i> Eight from the Swedish ports in the North Sea, 2 from Danish ports, 1 from Bremen and Hamburg, 2 from Friesland, 3 from Holland, 5 from the British Islands, 5 from North- America—Total	26
<i>Coals.</i> Four from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 3 from Danish ports, 200 from the British Islands—Total	207
<i>Stuffs and Cloths.</i> One from Danish ports, 1 from Hol- land, 27 from the British Islands—Total	29

<i>Cannons.</i>	Four from the British Islands, 1 from Spain—	
Total		5
<i>Planks, Wood, and Wood for Dyeing.</i>	Six from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 179 from Danish ports, 1 from Bremen and Hamburg, 1 from Friesland, 1 from Holland, 5 from the British Islands, 1 from Spain—Total	194
<i>Tobacco.</i>	Four from Holland, 1 from the British Islands, 1 from France—Total	6
<i>Horses, Cows, Coaches.</i>	One from the Swedish ports in the North Sea, 11 from the British Islands—Total	12
<i>Butter, Bread, Cheese, Meat, and other Provisions.</i>	Twenty-one from Danish ports, 1 from Bremen, 1 from Friesland, 5 from Holland—Total	28
<i>Different sorts of Merchandise.</i>	Six from the Swedish ports in the North Sea, 44 from Danish ports, 27 from Bremen and Hamburg, 179 from Holland, 4 from Austrian Flanders, 136 from the British Islands, 132 from France, 4 from Portugal, 9 from Spain, 12 from Italy and the Mediterranean—Total	559
<i>Lasts.</i>	Twenty-seven from Swedish ports in the North Sea, 37 from Danish ports, 68 from Bremen and Hamburg, 16 from Friesland, 559 from Holland, 105 from Austrian Flanders, 1082 from the British Islands, 178 from France, 1 from Portugal, 5 from Spain, 2 from Italy and the Mediterranean, 1 from North-America—Total	2081
Total of cargoes,		4427

Recapitulation of the Total of Cargoes.

Swedish ports in the North Sea	348
Danish ports	542
Bremen and Hamburg	113
Friesland	52
Holland	870
Austrian Flanders	118
British Islands	1612
France	560
Portugal	66
Spain	85
Italy and the Mediterranean	49
North-America	12
	<hr/>
	4427
	<hr/>

This account will show that it is entirely the fault of France if there are no longer 560 vessels sent from that country to the Baltic.

Of these 4427 vessels, there went

To Elsineur	42
To Copenhagen	549
Into Denmark	92
To Rostoc	68
To Lubec	52

Into Sweden	30
Into Swedish Pomerania	45
To Dantzic	239
Into the Prussian States	965
Into Courland	71
Into Russia	861
Into the Baltic, destination unknown	1134
	<hr/>
	4427
	<hr/>

In the course of the year 1789, there passed 4396 vessels through the Sound from the Baltic, viz.

Wheat. Seventeen from Rostoc, 11 from Sweden, 25 from Swedish Pomerania, 95 from Dantzic, 247 from the Prussian States, 2 from Courland, 4 from Russia—
Total 401

Rye. Eight from Copenhagen, 7 from Denmark, 22 from Rostoc, 13 from Sweden, 22 from Swedish Pomerania, 96 from Dantzic, 217 from the Prussian States, 32 from Courland, 18 from Russia—Total 435

Barley. Six from Sweden, 16 from Courland, 7 from Copenhagen, 7 from Rostoc, 4 from Swedish Pomerania, 2 from Dantzic, 3 from Denmark, 16 from Prussia, 1 from the Baltic, the particular place unknown—Total 62

<i>Oats and Grains.</i>	Thirty from Sweden, 5 from Courland, 12 from Copenhagen, 4 from Russia, 24 from Rostoe, 16 from Swedish Pomerania, 1 from Dantzic, 13 from Denmark, 6 from Prussia—Total	111
<i>Linon Cloth, Thread, and Cords.</i>	Eight from Russia, 1 from Swedish Pomerania, 11 from Dantzic, 9 from the Prussian States—Total	29
<i>Masts.</i>	One from Sweden, 1 from Courland, 1 from Copenhagen, 32 from Russia, 1 from the Russian States, 1 from the Baltic, no destination—Total	37
<i>Beams and Planks.</i>	Thirty-six from Sweden, 34 from Courland, 2 from Copenhagen, 313 from Russia, 3 from Swedish Pomerania, 77 from Dantzic, 1 from Lubec, 11 from Denmark, 687 from the Prussian States, 4 from the Baltic, no destination—Total	1168
<i>Small Timber for Joiner's Work.</i>	One from Elsinour, 30 from Sweden, 3 from Courland, 1 from Copenhagen, 3 from Swedish Pomerania, 3 from Lubec, 2 from Denmark, 52 from Dantzic, 112 from the Prussian States, 3 from the Baltic, no destination—Total	210
<i>Copper, Brass, Iron, and Tin.</i>	Two hundred and ninety-seven from Sweden, 3 from Copenhagen, 196 from Russia, 3 from Swedish Pomerania, 2 from Lubec, 2 from Denmark, 5 from the Prussian States—Total	508
<i>Soot and Leather.</i>	Sixty-seven from Russia, 2 from the Prussian States—Total	69
<i>Pitch, Liquid Pitch, and Tar.</i>	Ninety-four from Sweden, 3 from Copenhagen, 2 from Russia, 1 from Swedish Pomerania, 9 from Denmark, 1 from the Prussian States—Total	110
<i>Ashes and Pot-ashes.</i>	One from Sweden, 2 from Cour-	

land, 5 from Russia, 39 from the Prussian States, 45 from Dantzic, 1 from the Baltic, no destination—Total,	93
<i>Pease, Flour, and Provisions.</i> One from Courland, 11 from Copenhagen, 1 from Swedish Pomerania—Total	13
<i>Stones, Gunpowder, and Saltpetre.</i> Eight from Copenhagen,	8
<i>Grain, Hemp, and Flax Oil.</i> Twenty-one from Courland, 2 from Copenhagen, 168 from Russia, 2 from Lubec, 66 from the Prussian States—Total	259
<i>Lime, Chalk, and Bricks.</i> Five from Sweden	5
<i>Hemp, Flax, and Tow.</i> Twenty-two from Courland, 12 from Copenhagen, 279 from Russia, 3 from Lubec, 1 from Denmark, 36 from the Prussian States—Total	353
<i>Salt and Fish.</i> Four from Sweden, 16 from Copenhagen—Total	20
<i>Different Merchandise.</i> Four from Elsinour, 5 from Sweden, 248 from Copenhagen, 115 from Russia, 2 from Swedish Pomerania, 3 from Lubec, 2 from Dantzic, 4 from Denmark, 2 from the Prussian States—Total	385
<i>Lasts.</i> Sixteen from Elsinour, 4 from Sweden, 1 from Courland, 77 from Copenhagen, 4 from Russia, 1 from Swedish Pomerania, 1 from Lubec, 1 from Danzig, 11 from Denmark, 1 from the Prussian States, 3 from the Baltic, no destination—Total	120
Total	4396

Of these 4396 vessels, there went

To the Swedish ports in the North Sea	197
To the Danish ports in general	533
To Bremen and Hamburg	65

To Friesland	35
To Holland	1075
To Austrian Flanders	55
To the British Islands	1570
To France	508
To Portugal	168
To Spain	128
To Italy and the Mediterranean	42
To North-America	20
<hr/>	
Total	4396
<hr/>	

Extract of the Commerce between France and different Places upon the Baltic by the way of the Sound, in the Year 1789; from the most exact Information received upon the spot.

TABLE VII.

PRODUCTIONS FURNISHED • BY FRANCE.		PRODUCTIONS. RECEIVED THROUGH FRANCE.		Duties which, according to the Tariff, ought to be paid at the Custom-house at the Sound.		Duties which, according to the Tariff, ought to be paid at the Custom-house at the Sound.	
Quantity.	Rix. sk.	Quantity.	Rix. sk.	Quantity.	Rix. sk.	Quantity.	Rix. sk.
Alum	1,450 Pounds	Steel	600 Cent	Alum	431 12	Alum	37 54
Almonds	230,000	Alum	8 30	Alum	53 6	150 Skellings	25 0
Anis	85,000	Wax candles	145 2	Wax candles	35,950 0	100 Lasts	18
Different kinds of wood for dying	77,556	Pitch and tar	35,950 0	Pitch and tar	285 0	63 Cases	190 0
Liquorice sticks, or roots	6,559,960	Cavalier, or sturgeon's roe	285 0	Cavalier, or sturgeon's roe	90 39	6,000 Hogheads	37 39
Cocoa and coffee	117	Asbes (westinge)	90 39	Asbes (westinge)	8,900 0	10,000 Barrels	908 16
Cochineal	76,400	Asbes (weerdiche)	90 39	Asbes (weerdiche)	8,900 0	7,000 Lasts	583 16
Cotton	11,100	Raw hemp	90 39	Raw hemp	100 Sacks	7,000 0	150 0
Cumin	109,900	Wax	90 39	Wax	4,000 Pieces	150 0	150 0
Different drugs for dying	17,900	Nails and pegs for ships	90 39	Nails and pegs for ships	9,000 Pounds	100 Sacks	9 24
Flax	59,716 Pounds	Pitched ropes	19 0	Pitched ropes	135	9,000 Pounds	11 12
Cotton and other thread	8,210	Leather and skin prepared in Russia	102 90	Leather and skin prepared in Russia	150 Pieces	150	2 39
Ginger and other spices	11,400	Copper and brass	26 36	Copper and brass	10 Lasts	5,000 Skellings	2,500 0
Gum	3,500	Tortoise shells of hemp	135 0	Tortoise shells of hemp	180	100 Lasts	63 0
Oil of olives	180 Pipes	Ditto of flax	510 0	Ditto of flax	96,000 Skellings	8,000 0	162 0
Indigo	68,000 Pounds	Wheat	2,500 0	Wheat	8,000 Lasts	8,000 0	8,000 0
Dried outs and chestnuts	279 Sacks	Wheat in bars and plates	2,500 0	Wheat in bars and plates	15,000 Hogheads	50 Lasts	18 36
Different merchandises, fur about	260,000 Rix-dollars	Pitch and tar	2 39	Pitch and tar	800	5,000 Hogheads	281 12
Preserved melons	37,040	Flax-seed	34 35	Flax-seed	30 Sacks	11 12	4 50
Gall-nuts	807 Cases	Oil of hemp, and other sorts	39 2	Oil of hemp, and other sorts	19,988 Pieces	50,000 Lasts	781 12
Olives, capers	997	Common wool	131 12	Common wool	200 Lasts	40 Bales	30 0
Oranges and lemons	1,050 Skellings	Raw flax	135 0	Raw flax	50,000 Rix-dollars	2,500 Pieces	3 0
Works in iron	977 Bales	Mast and different wood for ships	25 26	Mast and different wood for ships	60,000 Dozens	540 0	5 0
Papers	319 Skellings	Small timber and staves	10 37	Small timber and staves	20 Sacks	20 Lasts	5 0
Pears and apples	617 Ten	Barley	848 36	Barley	10,000 Pieces	1,125 0	512 54
Prunes	1,800,000 Pounds	Hare-skins	67 24	Hare-skins	800	600 0	1 8
Prusselles	54,000	Skins, and other merchandise	44 3	Skins, and other merchandise	2,000 Dozens	414 3	271 2
Different sorts of raisins	47,000	Stones in squares	38 25	Stones in squares	50 Sacks	69 Bales	1 4
Rice	105,000	Different planks	196 42	Different planks	10,000 Pieces	2,000	1 4
Saffron	411	Pease	4,360 0	Pease	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Soap	8,500 Lasts	Beans	1,500 0	Beans	800	58 Barrels	1 4
Salt	4,000 Fr. barrels	Kye	102 37	Kye	10,000 Pieces	2,000	1 4
Syrup of Sugar	370,000 Pounds	Soot	23 8	Soot	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Wine	247 Pices	Tobacco from Ukraina	196 42	Tobacco from Ukraina	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Silk stuffs	247 Pices	Cloth for making sails	31,408 34	Cloth for making sails	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Silk stockings	247 Pices	Chol for different articles in a house	315 0	Chol for different articles in a house	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Different sorts of sugar	16,337,976 Pounds	Vinrol	156 18	Vinrol	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Tobacco	169,000	Fr. barrels	156 18	Fr. barrels	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Salt of Tartar	180,000	Cases	19 42	Cases	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Turpentine and oil	390	Barrels	52,400 0	Barrels	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Glass	250 Cases	Quackiver	1,010 4	Quackiver	2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Different wines	190,000		529		2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Vinegar	4,040				2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4
Quackiver	529				2,450 Lasts	271 2	1 4

Extract of the same French Commerce, &c. in the Year 1790.

TABLE VIII.

PRODUCTIONS QUANTIFIED BY FRANCE.	Quantity.	PRODUCTIONS THROUGH FRANCE.	Quantity.
Alum	2,380 Pounds	Steel	246 Ship.
Almonds	183,347	Alum	271
Anis	3,471	Oats	68 Lasts
Logwood	6,000	Bowspits	72 Pieces
Antimony	1,600	Timber	1,925
Wax Candles	72 Cases	Masts	36
Cocoa	30,768	Rich and tar	432 Lasts
Coffee	5,819,754 Pounds	Caviar, or sturgeon's roe	19 Hogsh.
Cinnamon	270	Pot-ash	4,139 Ship.
Capers	133 Hogsh.	Ashes (weedsche)	4,512
Chesnuts	57 Sacks	Candles	509 Cases
Lemons and oranges	1,133 Cases	Raw hemp	31,621 Ship.
Cashew	138 Pounds	Pegs for ships	3,827 Pieces
Different sweetmeats	552 Cases	Wax	1,320 Pounds
Cotton	131,671 Pounds	Isinglass	1,793
Superfine cloth	141 Pieces	Pitched ropes	81 Pieces
Brandy	13,222 Hogsh.	Horse-hair	35 Bales
Hye	20,888 Pounds	Russia leather	245 Pieces
Cotton thread	15,076	Copper	591 Ship.
Gum	3,344	Cask staves	1,230 Pieces
Oil of olive	171 Pipes	Tow, or hands of hemp	1,985 Ship.
— turpentine	429 Hogsh.	Ditto of flax	2,003
Indigo	55,871 Pounds	Iron bars	38,800
Hans	9,600	Ditto in plates	1,066
Cork	28,820	Wheat	5,787 Lasts
Corks	3,029 Sacks	Butch and tar	1,202
Liquours	212 Cases	Hemp and flax seed	92
Different merchandise, for about	184,107 Kix	Various seeds	81
Honey	145 Barrels	Oil of hemp, and other soaps	71 Atoms
Nuts and walnuts	41 Sacks	Common wool	9,440 Pounds
Gall nuts	24,183 Pounds	Brass	3,227 Ship.
Olives	3,7 Hogsh.	Raw flax	265
Orleans dye	6,062 Pounds	Small timber and staves	1,413,600 Pieces
Wrought iron	7,239 Pieces	Various merchandises, for about	17,220 Rix
Paper	16,303 Reams	Wists	298 Pieces
Perfumery	681 Cases	Montep mae	499
Flints	253 Barrels	Small ditto, for boats	220
Pears and apples	6,30 Tons	Barley	400 Lasts
Pepper	1,025 Pounds	Hides	1,250 Bales
Pitch	118 Ship.	Hare skins	71
Different provisions	2,925 Cases	Other skins	31
Plums	1,351,133 Pounds	Stones in squares	1,510 Pieces
Different sorts of rains	47,591	Planks from 7 to 11 feet	15,432 Dozens
Liquorice roots	49,940	Ditto from 15 to 20 feet	3,485
Rice	47,672	Ditto from 20 to 30 feet	740
Rocou tincture	4,000	Feathers	630 Pounds
Saffron	473	Pease	13 Lasts
Salt-petre	231,400	Powder	1,000 Cwt.
Soup	50,830	Beans	7,400 Pieces
Salt	294	Rye	2,546 Lasts
Syrup of sugar	5,526 F. bar.	Hog's bristles	77 Bales
Soda	9,920 Pounds	Spar, or yards	1,229 Pieces
Brimstone	313,600	Galow	2,102 Ship.
Silk stuff	135 Pieces	Galow from Ukraina	2 Barrels
Silk stockings	6,663 Pairs	Common red dye	284 Tons
Different sorts of silks	1,250 Pounds	Cloth for making hats	5,336 Pieces
Sugar	14,026,288	Cloth called Ruvndolk	631
Tobacco	11,747	Ditto called Flemish	31
Salt of Tartar	78,720	Cloth for different articles in house	325
Turpentine	182,000	Cloth for the use of the table	514
Fine linen cloth	184 Pieces		
Verdigris	40,640 Pounds		
Glass panes	79 Cases		
Different wines	63,721 Hogsh.		
Vinegar	4,420		
Different wines in bottles	5,573 Cases		
Vitriol	1,280 Pounds		
Wood	150 Packet		

Remarks.—Upon comparing this table with the one for 1789, a great deficiency will be perceived in that of 1790; and amongst other articles near 1,000,000 pounds of coffee, and more than 50,000 hogsheads of brandy. From four to five hundred thousand livres, in different merchandise, estimated at a fixed price, above 8,000 lasts of salt, more than 2,500,000 of sugar, and more than 50,000 hogsheads of wine, were sent from France than in the former year, which can only be attributed to the war in the north, and to the situation of France since the revolution. We will venture to say, that, on account of proscriptions and treaties between most of the northern powers, which make smuggling necessary, and derange all calculation, the above exportation has not perhaps been carried to half its extent; for it is a certain fact that the whole of the countries on the Baltic (including Sweden, Denmark, Mecklenburg, the two Pomeranias, Prussia, Poland, Courland, and Russia) consume a considerable greater quantity of most French articles; and it is very well known that Denmark alone imports annually from France between six and seven millions of coffee, eight or nine thousand hogsheads of brandy, and more than 30,000 of wine, &c. This exportation, composing 261 cargoes such as it is, when compared to that of others (particularly Holland, which consists of whale-blubber, juniper, fruits, bricks, tobacco, cheese, and other articles, making 243 cargoes; and likewise to England, which exports 657; viz. one of wines, twenty-eight of beer, six of fruits, seven of sugar and treacle, 159 of salt, four of iron-ware, eleven of tin and lead, four of earthenware, eight of bricks, ten of malt grains, 289 of coal, fourteen of woollen cloths, two of tobacco, and 162 of different merchandise), is infinitely more useful and advantageous when properly rated, and must always preponderate over the others in the Baltic, whenever the French choose to apply themselves seriously to this important branch of

commerce; which is still more valuable, because it is renewed every year, and it depends upon themselves by a sound political conduct to make such great resources still more advantageous.

Whilst France only imported 351 cargoes, Holland imported 1081, and England 2031. If each of these two nations consumes it's quota, the wants of France being infinitely less than either of them, that country ought to gain as much from it's trade with the Baltic as England and Holland must lose from theirs. It is very well known that it costs England many millions annually to maintain it's balance: and, if that country and Holland re-export to other places, it is still more astonishing that France cannot do the same as well, nay better than they can; since, independent of her great resources, she is situated much nearer the south, and, by means of a well-understood and politic conduct, has succeeded in regaining the opportunity of trading with different countries, of which it had been before deprived by the able management of the other two nations.

As to navigation, it is surprising that in the whole of that of the Sound there should be only 123 French vessels, whilst there are 3788 English ones, and 2009 belonging to Holland; and it is still more astonishing, that, in examining the state of commerce even between France and the Baltic, from which this extract is taken, it appears there were only ninety-nine French vessels; whilst there were two American, thirty-nine English, thirty-six from Bremen, 126 Danish, twenty-five from Dantzic, two Spanish, one Flemish, eighty-eight Prussian, thirty-five Hamburgers, 194 Dutch, twenty seven from Lubec, seventeen from Rostoc, two Russian, and eleven Swedish, making in all 605 foreign vessels. On calculating the freight of each of these ships at only 8,000 French livres one with another, it appears that the French

trade loses annually near five millions of freight (which article, for all truly commercial nations, is one of the greatest profits in trade), and thus wantonly contributes to the enriching rival countries. In allowing only ten men for the crew of each vessel, France loses every year, beside the above-mentioned millions, the invaluable advantage of maintaining, without any expence, more than six thousand seamen for the defence of the state, and of forming them in the most laborious nautical school in the world, and which, amongst other nations, has brought Holland, and more particularly England, to that degree of consideration and power they now enjoy; and which, if France would attempt to obtain it, might possibly succeed. But the French have always had narrow ideas upon this subject; they think they have nothing more to learn: but, unhappily for them, they are mere novices, and there is every reason to believe they will long continue so.

CHAP. IV.

Manufactures.

THE manufactures in Denmark are carried on with a tolerable degree of activity; but they bear no sort of comparison with those of England, France, &c. which we have already said to be the case in all northern countries with respect to arts and sciences.* We will however except the few manufactures here mentioned, which would do honor to any country.

The Porcelain Manufactory† is very fine and complete: what

* Several Danish authors allow that the manufactories in Copenhagen, and particularly those in the provinces, are in great want of improvement. "Our workmen," says one of these authors, "receive great wages, work slowly, generally ill, and without any degree of taste: their education is neglected, they seem void of reflection, and an apprentice imitates his master mechanically." A society has since been formed at Copenhagen in 1798, for the purpose of instructing young artificers, from which, and by giving greater scope to their genius, an advantageous alteration is expected to take place.

† After the failure of many plans for establishing a porcelain manufactory, Francis Henry Müller, a celebrated chemist, succeeded in raising a subscription in 1774, for one at Copenhagen. The government facilitated his undertaking, and he began his operations. Müller, being appointed manager, traveled into different countries to make observations. Saxon artificers were sent for, but their skill not being found equal to what was expected from them, they were not employed. The subscriptions amounted to 24,500 rix-dollars in 1779, and the king had at different times contributed to the

makes it particularly interesting to foreigners is their being allowed to see the whole process, without any of that ridiculous narrow-minded reserve so common at Vienna, Berlin,* and even in Saxony, where they make a mystery of the three principal things, as if in this enlightened age there was still any secrecy admitted in the arts. This manufacture deserves a particular description, which at the same time will give a perfect idea of

find; but more money being necessary, and the profits as yet being very inadequate to the original expence, the projectors grew cool; the enterprise stood still; and the manager was on the point of seeing his hopes vanish. In this distressed state, recourse was had to the king, who bought the shares, and took upon himself the management of the manufactory. A sum of 120,000 rix-dollars was assigned to pay the shares and the debts incurred by the company; it was likewise applied to encourage the industry of the workmen. This sum, however, was not sufficient, and the expence from 1779 to 1780 certainly amounted to 210,000 rix-dollars. Since the last-mentioned year, more than 8000 rix-dollars have been annually assigned towards the support of the manufactory.

China, to the amount of 30,000 rix-dollars, is annually made, but they cannot contrive to sell more than to the value of 20,000. The partisans of this manufactory allege that it supports some hundred artificers, and that the money which would otherwise be spent in foreign china is now circulated at home. Objections might, however, be made to such arguments, if this object be taken into consideration as respecting the general interest of the constitution. It would have been better to have expressed a hope, that one day or other, the china, by becoming cheaper, might have as quick a sale as that of other countries; and that the profits would then compensate the losses hitherto sustained. This hope is indeed well founded; for the light delicacy of the biscuit, the lustre of the varnish, and the beauty of the coloring of the Copenhagen china, may vie with that of Saxony. The clay comes from Bornholm, and the cobalt from Norway.—The new regulations at the Custom-house relative to the china trade, are as follow. “Foreign china is prohibited, because the manufactory at Copenhagen, which is at the charge of the state, has been of late productive enough to supply the two kingdoms with an article of luxury, more than of necessity. Painted earthen-ware, is likewise prohibited, from it’s resemblance to china being so great, that many may be induced to purchase it instead of a more valuable article; but plain earthenware, being more generally necessary, is allowed, as is also the china porcelain brought over by the East India ships, belonging to the Asiatic Company.”

* This ceased to be the case at Berlin in 1802, when they made no scruple of showing the whole process.

all others of the same nature. There are three large and two small ovens: one of these was the first employed by M. Müller, the original inventor and present director of this establishment. They bake each time to the value of from five hundred to four thousand rix-dollars, according to the quality of the porcelain: the wood is replenished as fast as it consumes, and consists of large poles ten feet long of pine and fir, which are not very easily procured. The ovens are made of brick. A baking lasts eighteen hours, and the oven is heated sufficiently at first to boil an egg. It takes four days to cool, during which time the china remains in it. These ovens are capable of baking eight complete services at once, whereas those of Saxony cannot take in more than three. The fire here is so well distributed, that in many of the bakings of fine porcelain the loss sustained is scarcely ten rix-dollars. There is a large oven in the lower rooms for the first baking, and a room with another oven for baking the earth to make moulds and shapes: the earth itself is also prepared in the same place. Two other rooms contain the porcelain after the first baking, which is spread upon planks; also a large tub full of a sort of thin liquid composition for glazing or varnishing. This, one man is constantly employed in stirring; whilst another dips the piece of china into it, to which the composition sticks, and entirely effaces the colors. The effect produced by the fire is to make the coat which hid them transparent. The second baking is so hot, that a large piece of iron placed upon seven forms, one above the other, will go through them all at the end of four minutes. This experiment has been often made; and a common brick will resist the heat of the fire much longer. The composition for the glazing is exactly the same as for the porcelain; but the first matter is mixed up in just proportions, and this is one of the principal

operations. But the most important of all is performed in another room, where there is only one man, who takes an oath to have no communication whatsoever with any other workman. He works a mill by hand, in which he prepares the paste, and mixes the different matters which compose the glazing. In the same room is a tub for drying the paste, which is afterwards weighed to determine the exact quantity that ought to be used. There are a great many wooden tubs in another room, where they wash the earth for making porcelain, which goes through six different cleansings. In the middle of each tub is a cock, and the earth which swims as high as where this is placed is reputed good, and that which sinks bad. The paste ought to have three qualities;—greasiness, to prevent its falling when employed in the turning-wheels; consistence, in order to keep it in shape; and transparency.

There are two tolerable large mills, the one for the hard, and the other for the softer matter. The grindstones have a double effect, and work two small ones, composed of red and white granite, upon the first floor. The granite comes from Zealand; and the black is of no use for this operation, which is not performed in the same manner as in Saxony, where the matter is mixed without water, and here quite the contrary. By the method employed in this country, there is as much made in two hours as they can possibly produce in Saxony in twenty-four; besides the advantage of having no occasion for sieves. There are several rooms upon the upper floors; in one of which are the large turning-wheels for important articles, in another the porcelain before it is baked, and in a third they make the forms for the biscuits. There are also three common turning-wheels with machines, at the end of which is a sharp iron for cutting in equal portions, which is so fastened that it

is impossible to vary; consequently the shapes must be perfectly regular. We did not observe a machine of this kind in Saxony. There are women employed in breaking the quartz, in which is found the matter for making the glazing composition. These have a separate room, where they likewise make shapes of common earth. In another room are six turning-wheels, with several cabinets for locking up the china when taken out of the turner's hands; and a separate closet, where the paste is kneaded before it is given to them, which is never thought fit for use till it is entirely like grease. There is a room for the shapes, with six work-shops and several closets; another for those whopaint in blue:—for common blue, that from Norway is thought the finest. There are immense lofts for the cases or coffins, which must dry a year before they can be used. These are made of Bornholm clay, which is excellent for containing the porcelain in the ovens; and it is of great consequence that these cases should be good, for they usually serve four or five different times. The moulds are kept in a kind of gallery, and are made of plaster which comes from France. There is indeed some to be found in Iceland, but they do not use it. This is however the only foreign article employed in the manufactory, and the store-house for moulds is valued at thirty thousand rix-dollars. There are rooms appropriated to the painters upon varnish, who do not apply the colors till after the varnish has been burned in, in which operation the pieces diminish a sixth part. The colors are prepared in a small closet: yellow is made with pure tin; purple with tin and gold; dark poppy with iron; sky blue with cobalt; black with manganese; rose-color with gold; and green with copper. These colors never change in baking, but remain precisely as they were first drawn; whereas they spread in many manufactures. The composition of colors is one of

the great mysteries at Meissen. They make use of vinegar and agate for polishing the gold upon the porcelain.

In the lower part of the manufactory is an oven for preparing the colors; a room for polishing off the defects, with an oven for enameling; an oven for baking blue and white china (which only requires two bakings, whilst the other sorts must often have four); and an oven for reducing the flints.

The storehouse consists of two rooms for the fine porcelain, and four for the commoner sort. There are in all three kinds: the most ordinary, which is sold at one mark and a half the plate; that of a better quality, at three marks; and the finest, at five marks. They are all blue and white. The Copenhagen porcelain is less glassy than that from China; the paste of the biscuit is lighter and closer than the Saxon porcelain; the white keeps its color better, and it is easier to wash. They showed us some beautiful biscuit with extremely pretty designs. In short, the whole of this manufacture is perfectly well understood, and carried on with great spirit and diligence. It has only been established thirteen years, and at the end of four the storehouses were already filled with a variety of articles. We saw some flutes, for which they asked seventy rix-dollars each. These are very just in tune, but too heavy to be played upon conveniently; they are likewise astonishingly brittle. We were also shown vases two feet and a half in height, most beautifully painted by Camrath. M. Meyer is much esteemed for the patterns of his designs, and these artists are always paid by the piece. The Copenhagen porcelain is very little known even in Denmark; for the original expences of a manufacture of this nature are such, that it must necessarily be sold very dear: it is indeed more so at present than the Saxon china; but it is imagined the price will be lowered in a short time. The dif-

ferent articles exposed to sale when we were there, were worth at the lowest rate two hundred and fifty thousand crowns, according to a valuation just made. This establishment cost the king ten thousand rix-dollars per annum. Three hundred workmen are employed, forty of whom are for the painting part of the business, which we thought but few for that important branch. The original expence was one hundred and eighty thousand rix-dollars.

In all other porcelain manufactories there are different directors; one for the paste, another for the forms, a third for the bakings, a fourth for the painting, &c. all of whom are paid at a great rate. But here M. Müller, an excellent chemist, acts himself in these various departments, and is very shabbily paid, having only a salary of five hundred rix-dollars. He is also the original inventor of this manufacture: and when it is known that he never was out of Copenhagen,* consequently could have no model to go by, it is inconceivable to what a degree of perfection he has brought it, and that too entirely from his own enlightened genius, without the smallest foreign assistance.

The most beautiful porcelain likely to be sent for a long time from this manufacture will be a complete service, upon which is to be represented, in natural colors, all the plants of the *Flora Danica*, with one upon each piece, large or small, according to the dimensions of the piece. The name of the plant will be marked under the plate, and the whole is to be classed according to the Linnæan system. The drawings are traced with such wonderful accuracy, that the most famous painters belonging to the manufactory would not undertake so difficult and slavish a piece of work. This service will consist of about eleven hundred articles, and is to cost from ten to twelve thousand rix-

* According to Mr. Catteau, this was not the fact; we only repeat what the man himself told us was the case.

dollars. It is also to have represented upon it the different costumes of all the different Danish subjects, with the uniforms of the troops. It was not known, when we were at Copenhagen, for whom it was intended.

The following note will give some idea of the different prices of this manufacture :

		marks	skel.
A soup-plate of striped blue	of the 1st quality	5	8
Ditto	2d quality	4	0
Ordinary ditto	1st quality	4	8
Ditto	2d quality	3	0
The smallest round dish	1st quality	12	0
Ditto	2d quality	9	0
The largest round dish	1st quality	33	0
Ditto	2d quality	27	0
The smallest oval terrine with it's dish	1st quality	60	0
Ditto	2d quality	48	0
The smallest oval dish	1st quality	18	0
Ditto	2d quality	12	0
The largest oval terrine	1st quality	96	0
The largest oval dish	1st quality	48	0
A complete afternoon service, consisting of six chocolate-cups with handles, twelve coffee-cups ditto, coffee-pot, tea- pot, and dish, sugar-dish, tea-canister, and cream-pot: the whole blue and			
white	1st quality	19	3
Ditto	2d quality	13	2
Ditto, plain blue	1st quality	17	3
Ditto, in the Chinese manner	1st quality	22	4
Ditto, with natural flowers	1st quality	26	4

rix-dol. ma.

The cheapest table-service is the plain blue; the blue and white striped is a little dearer; that in the Indian manner still more so; and the red with flowers the most expensive of all. We now only speak of what is exposed to sale at a fixed price in the magazines.

*M. de Schimmelmann's Sugar Refinery** is the most considerable one of the sort we ever saw; it contains sixteen pans, four for baking the rawest sugar, and twelve for other kinds. These are from 26 to 28 inches deep, and from four to five feet in diameter; each holds four hogsheads. The purest sugar is six hours in baking, and the other sort twelve or thirteen, indeed sometimes more. The sugar refined here comes partly from Santa Cruz, and partly from other places: it is smuggled into the country; which it is very easy to do, by means of the small islands belonging to Denmark, in America. M. Schimmelmann's plantations in different islands produce from four hundred to six hundred hogsheads, and have even yielded one thousand. They usually refine in this place two thousand four hundred hogsheads, (weigh-

* In the year 1793, there were 18 refineries, or sugar-bakehouses, in Copenhagen. They are calculated to admit 68 pans, but in general only a third or a fourth of that number is employed. If they all were in use, the result of the operation would be as follows:—One pan would bake 202,500 pounds of raw sugar every year. Sixty-eight pans would therefore bake 13,770,000 pounds, which would be worth 1,863,979 rix-dollars and one mark, reckoning the freight, the insurance, Custom-house duties, and the sugar at thirteen skellings (or thirteen pence) a pound. A pan consumes thirty lasts (or sixty tun) of coals, which, at sixteen rix-dollars and a half last, make 33,660 rix-dollars for the sixty-eight pans. The annual product of one pan in sugar and syrup, may be estimated at 35,812 rix-dollars, which make 2,435,216 for the whole of the pans, the gain would therefore be 537,579 rix-dollars. Five workmen are required for each pan, consequently three hundred and forty must be employed for the sixty-eight.

Besides the refineries in the capital, there are two at Elsinour, which bake 800,000 pounds of raw sugar, one at Odensée, baking 700,000 pounds, and two at Aalborg, baking 300,000 pounds.

ing from twelve to thirteen quintals) annually. One year indeed they even refined three thousand two hundred. The moulds for clarifying the sugar are of clay, from Rouen : there is earth of the same kind to be found at Bornholm, but it is not quite so good, nor is there a sufficient quantity for the purpose. A hogshead of this Rouen clay costs, when brought into Denmark, four crowns, and one hundred and fifty are necessary for one year. The usual balance of twelve months is, that one hundred pounds of raw sugar yield thirty pounds of refined, of the first quality ; three other kinds of sugar in loaves, and syrup sold at from four to seven crowns the quintal ; the remainder is left to waste. The sugar, when taken out of the pans, requires ten weeks in winter, and eight in summer, before it is fit to be made into dry loaves. A great deal of sugar-candy is made in this refinery ; and it is prepared by putting boiling sugar into copper pots, with strings passing from the top to the bottom, to which the sugar hangs, and, after eight days cooling, it is fit for use. There are seven different sorts, and each pot contains thirty-two or thirty-three pounds. No fuel is used in this place but English coal, and fifty or sixty workmen are constantly employed. The house is six stories high, and was entirely full. The store-houses are extremely large, and contain sugar to the value of two hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars. Those workmen who are paid by the day receive two marks, and those paid by the year from seventy to one hundred and seventy rix-dollars.

The price of sugars at the refinery in 1796 was as follows :—

	sk. dan.		sk. dan.
Canary superfine a pound	35	Melasses	77
Fine of the second quality	32	Three other qual. at 30, 22,	
Lump-sugar a pound . . .	25	and 25	

	sk. dan.		sk. dan.
White sugar-candy of the first quality	47	White powdered sugar to	24
White sugar-candy of the second quality	39	Brown	16
Common	33	White syrup per quintal	16
Common refined per pound	30	Brown	7

Malt spirit is a very important article in the north of Europe, and there are distilleries in most of the towns in Denmark, particularly in Copenhagen, where there have been many very considerable ones for some years past. The distillers, who amount to three hundred and sixteen, form a company, which enjoy some very particular privileges. During the course of the year 1800, they had made use of 287,824 tun of grain, which had produced 9,391,400 quarts of brandy; part of which is sent either abroad, or to the provinces, but the capital consumes a great quantity, there being nineteen hundred ale-houses and places of public entertainment in the city and suburbs. The manner of distillery requires improvement, and the government has taken it into consideration, the present method consuming too great a quantity of grain.

Soap-houses were first introduced into Copenhagen in 1662, and there are now six or seven in that city, besides others at Aalborg and different places. The whole of the produce is estimated at seventy-two thousand rix-dollars. The original materials, brought from abroad, cost thirty-two thousand. The Jutland peasants for a great length of time been industrious and ingenious; the inhabitants of a village called Worup, those of the canton of Warde, and of several other places, have for many years made black earthenware, much esteemed not only in Denmark but at Hamburg, and in Holland. This is com-

posed of a fine and bluish clay, found in the neighbourhood, which is collected in autumn, but not begun to be worked till the following spring. The clay is mixed with sand, carefully cleansed from all impurities. The utensils of this ware are remarkable for strength and nice glazing, and the annual profits arising to three villages, from this branch of industry, are calculated at thirteen thousand six hundred and sixty rix-dollars. They likewise gain a great deal by the carriage, for a great pot, costing two skellings on the spot, is sold at Weyle for twelve or sixteen, and at Copenhagen for twenty-four, and indeed sometimes for more. Potter's ware is also manufactured in the islands of Bornholm and Falster.

The earthenware made in the village of Castrup, in the isle of Amack, has a great sale in Copenhagen. A Swede has established a manufactory in the neighbourhood of that city for a kind of Dutch ware stoves, such as are used in Sweden, and the government has granted him an exclusive privilege for making them, during the space of twenty years, in consideration of the difficulties he had to encounter, before he could induce the inhabitants to adopt these new-invented stoves. He makes them of different sizes and different colors, from ten rix-dollars to two hundred.

*M. Ruyersen's Silk Manufacture**, is extremely fine, with one hundred looms, besides a very few others in other parts of the town. Each loom, when furnished, is valued at one hundred crowns; and eight only are employed in making flowered silks.

* Articles of luxury are carried to a great excess in Denmark, particularly by women of the second and third class: but as the moderate fortunes of their husbands prevent the latter from gratifying their wives in this particular, they seek other methods of supplying their wishes, and indeed generally succeed.

of large patterns, for which there is a great demand by the common order of women, who make caps of this article. Velvets are sold from nine to twenty-four marks the ell; lutestrings from four to six; and satins, nine marks wide, from eleven to twelve. One mark an ell is paid to the workman for lutestrings, and three or four for velvets. There are indeed some articles, the workmanship of which amounts to ten rix-dollars. Few colored velvets are made, because, by the sumptuary laws, women alone are permitted to wear them. Twelve looms are appropriated to the velvet. This manufacture makes use of, annually, from five to six thousand pounds of silk. What is brought from Italy costs nine or ten crowns, but that from Nice is better and dearer. The white silk generally comes from China: it is spun when it arrives, is very fine, and costs eight crowns. The workmen earn three, four, and sometimes five crowns a week; but there are very few of the latter. Their number amounts to nearly four hundred, including women and children; and amongst the whole there was only one who was not a Danish subject. The annual sale is from seventy to eighty thousand rix-dollars, one-fourth of which is for the use of Norway, and the rest for Denmark*.

M. Tuttin's Manufacture of mock Chintz† is at a small dis-

* The Danish authors affirm, that the silk manufactories have cost for premiums, encouraging the undertakers, and for divers other things, the sum of 200,000 rix-dollars. The result of the enterprise has not equalled the expectations formed from it. There are at present from 140 to 150 looms for silks for furniture, wearing apparel, &c. In the year 1787 there were six ribbon manufactories, 40 looms, and 313 artificers. The annual product was 32,175 rix-dollars. There were also the same year 38 looms for weaving gauzes, having 67 artificers, and producing 17,400 rix-dollars. The annual product from the silk-stocking manufactories is estimated at about 13,000 rix-dollars.

† These mock chintzes were, for a great while, allowed to be printed at only one manufactory, which had obtained an exclusive privilege upon very advantageous terms, but

TRAVELS THROUGH DENMARK.

tance from the city. It takes up a large space of ground, and there is a fine garden with a piece of water communicating to a fresh-water lake, from which it is separated by the great road, the house, and a small court-yard. This piece of water may be emptied into the sea by means of sluices.

We were first shown an oven, with three vessels of Norway copper, each costing four hundred rix-dollars, and lasting twenty years. There are two tubs in the same place, for the purpose of taking the gum out of the Indian cloths, which are thrown simply into the water for four or five days, then dried, and the operation is finished. They employ in this place no cloth but what is made in India.

There are three presses, from which the pieces are taken out after twenty-four hours, and this is the last process. A small spare wooden cylinder is kept in the same room; and in another wing adjoining to this, a large machine with three cylinders, one of which is iron placed between two wooden ones, the whole worked by a horse. There are ten machines in the next room for glazing the cloth before it is put into the press. This is a very fatiguing part of the business; the men are paid by the piece, and often earn three French livres a day. The glazing machine is a piece of wood hung to the ceiling, with a very smooth stone at the end, with which the cloth is rubbed very hard. This

since the year 1754, this branch of industry has been free, and there are now several printers at Copenhagen, who succeed extremely well. Besides seven great manufactories, employing 360 persons, there are smaller ones, forming altogether a most important part of trade. These different manufactories print linen to the value of 200,000 rix-dollars annually, deducting 46,800 for colors, and other materials. The articles coming out of the hands of the printers are estimated at 366,800 rix-dollars. We cannot assign a reason for the great success of these manufactories in the East India trade, which the Danes have carried on with much spirit for some years, and which makes Copenhagen one of the greatest markets for printed linen; consequently the prohibition of importing any from abroad has been strictly enforced.

It bears upon another piece of wood, with grooves in it. The heat in the room where they dry with fire is generally from twenty-four to twenty-eight degrees of Réaumur's thermometer. All the plates for the forms are made in the house; these are of brass, incrustated with the wood of the pear-tree. English coal is employed for almost all the fires; for what is brought from the island of Bornholm is dearer, and very difficult to work: they likewise use some wood, but are as sparing of it as possible. In summer time the expence of the workmen amounts to one thousand rix-dollars a week. A printer sometimes earns six French livres a day, and many at least forty skellings. There are three hundred people employed at that season of the year, among whom fifty are girls for drawing patterns. Many workmen come hither from Hamburgh, and return to pass the winter in their own country, when the business of this manufacture is stopped, from the impossibility of bleaching. The drying-house is a new building separated from the other, almost square, and very high: it cost five thousand rix-dollars, and is upon the same plan as one of this nature near Geneva. It is sufficiently large to spread out three hundred and fifty pieces at a time, and almost as many on the outside; these take twelve hours to dry in summer, but would require four or five days in winter. The funds of this manufacture are two hundred thousand rix-dollars; one-third of which belongs to a Swiss family of the name of Irelin, and the two others to M. M. Tuttin, of Manheim, who are settled at Copenhagen.

*The Manchester Manufacture** is likewise out of the town, on the same side as the preceding one. It is entirely upon the same

* Another manufactory on the same plan has lately been established in the bailiwick of Hirshtelm, some miles from Copenhagen. Cotton stockings are made in that town, but in small quantities, not producing yearly more than 2 or 3000 rix-dollars.

plan as those in England, and is under the direction of M. Norbert. Nothing can be finer; and it deserves to be seen and examined accurately. The first process is cleansing the wool. The machine for this purpose consists of two iron cylinders, between which the cotton passes, and is afterwards pulled in pieces by iron points: it then falls upon bars of iron-wire sufficiently separated from each other for the grease to pass between. In this manner one hundred pounds of cotton may be cleansed in one day. The original price is two marks four skellings the pound, but there is some that, when spun, costs nine pounds sterling. Each pound yields at least thirty, and at most ninety-six, skains of eight Danish ells. The spun cotton sells, at the least, for the double of what it first cost, but never more than for a rix-dollar. When we were there none had been sold.

The carding machine has fifteen cylinders of different sizes; each of which is furnished with a great quantity of small iron points or teeth: the last is like an endless screw, or rather like a snail. Twenty-four pounds may be carded in a day; and after it is carded, they draw it out more or less, according to the degree of fineness of the work: this operation is sometimes repeated four different times. When ordinary cotton only is required, six lots are put into the machine, and three only for the finer sort. There are three machines united together, which may be worked at will by the same manipulation. In them is a principal wheel, in the form of a heart, to prevent the thread from attaching itself to the same place, and that the rochets (large wooden bobbins) may be equally furnished in every part. The first of these machines is for drawing out the cotton, the second for preparing it for being spun, and the third for spinning it. In order to make the cotton fit for drawing, it is passed through three cylinders lined with leather, over which is a brush for

cleaning off the grease that may happen to be attached to it. The cotton, when drawn, drops into long tin boxes. To prepare the cotton for spinning, it must pass between several cylinders, which turn it slightly the contrary way from what it is to be spun; it is then put upon rochets, of which there are six, each spinning four Danish ells in a minute: this machine spins the woof, and may be marked by water. It is inconceivable with what ease they mend the thread, but they very seldom have any occasion to do it. There are three cylinders screwed to the length of near an inch, and over them cylinders of the same length lined with leather, and one of them with cloth, to serve the purpose of a brush. This machine is worked by only one wheel, twenty-eight inches in diameter, and communicates it's motion to another of four inches and a quarter. There are two dented wheels, one of about half an inch, and the other a great deal larger; the latter has fifty teeth, and the first (though always in the same proportion) may be changed for one with from six to twelve teeth. The large wheel goes round forty-two times in a minute, and the others in proportion to their dimensions: as to the small ones for turning the rochets, they go round five thousand times in a minute. All these wheels are moved by one single piece of leather, and any one of them may be stopped at pleasure. Next comes the largest of all the machines, having forty-two rochets: this is for spinning the woof and the chain; and the operation is performed at twice, the thread lengthening at first, and twisting as it returns. This machine must be worked by hand. The more the thread is drawn out, the finer the stuff, and they usually draw it out twelve times. There is a saddle upon the large cylinder, which presses proportionably upon the three covered with leather: each small one is about an inch, and each saddle bears upon

six of these cylinders. When we saw this manufacture, they were making eight machines of this nature, with ninety-six rochets. The old wooden machines only spun six pounds in a day; they make use of them still, but they are worked by women: the cotton is much coarser, and very unequal, and the waste very great; of which indeed we were witnesses. The new method has a great advantage over the spinning by hand, because the twist is finer, and much more even. Each rochet does the work of more than one person: the cotton is always straight, and never either crossed or on one side. There is a kind of mill, worked by hand, for doubling the thread, and another machine for the same purpose, consisting of a reversed cylinder. These machines are in all manufactures.

Three different kinds of works in cotton are made here—pure cotton, cotton stockings, and cotton mixed with silk. There are thirty looms at work, which differ only from those in other places in one particular;—the shuttle is not thrown according to the practice of our weavers; and they only make use of one hand; by which means the motion is quicker, in the proportion of twenty to seven. The dearest pieces were formerly five crowns, but they are now only two crowns and a half. The cheapest are sold for four marks: they are three quarters of a Danish ell wide, and used to be much wider. In December, 1790*, they had not made any articles with cotton spun according to the new method.

There is a particular place where they cut the cotton to pieces

* The annual sale produced from 20 to 30,000 rix-dollars. The managers flatter themselves that the improvement of these machines will enable them to rival the English.

for making velvet, and they use for this purpose a very sharp iron instrument with an extremely fine point at the end. To prevent the iron from cutting the stuff, they put on a slight covering, likewise of iron, which confines the instrument, and only allows it sufficient play for cutting what is necessary. This method is only employed for cotton velvets with straight stripes; but those with a pattern are cut upon the loom. They have vainly endeavoured to find out from England (as they told us) the manner of cutting a whole piece at once, and none of their trials have succeeded. A great deal of time is saved by cutting the pieces when taken out of the looms; they have therefore adopted this method. The water for bleaching and dyeing is furnished by a pump; and there is an oven with five coppers and tin-kettles for dyeing red and purple. The washing part is performed with only two cylinders of channeled wood, and the printing is done in the same manner as the mock chintzes both here and at Hamburgh. The printers earn from five to six crowns a week: but the difficulty, indeed the impossibility, of bleaching in the winter, puts a stop to the work during that season. Two hundred workmen are employed in this manufacture, all of whom sleep in the house, and are paid by the piece: they usually earn fourteen or fifteen marks a-week; some indeed get eighteen. Women also work by the piece, and earn eight marks.

Cloth Manufactories are very necessary in a country where that article makes an essential part of dress, and where the breeding of sheep may be easily encouraged. Denmark has furnished for many centuries wool to make the coarse cloth worn by the peasants, which they very frequently work themselves; but it is still necessary to import the greatest part of the princi-

pal materials for fine cloth, and they have recourse to Poland, Spain, and Mecklenburg: what comes from the district of Eyderstedt, in Schleswig, cannot be called foreign, relative to the general commerce of the Danish dominions. The artificers employed in the cloth manufactories at Copenhagen, and in the provinces, amount to eighteen hundred. The original materials cost 97,000 rix-dollars, and the articles manufactured are worth 165,000. Shalloons, camlets, and casimirs, are also made, and the wool employed for these articles comes principally from Eyderstedt. The whole produce is estimated at 94,000 rix-dollars, and the original materials at 41,000. There being an intimate connexion between working in wool and agriculture, and there being a sufficient number of hands employed in this business, any stagnation in the sale might be productive of bad consequences; it has therefore been thought advisable to except foreign cloth, and several other sorts of stuffs, from the articles of importation allowed by the late Custom-house tariff.

Frederick IV. established the great cloth manufactory for the use of the army at Copenhagen. This employs seven looms for fine cloth, and forty-four for the other different articles necessary for the army. There are twelve hundred workmen, and from a hundred and forty to a hundred and fifty thousand ells are annually made in this manufactory, eight or ten thousand of which are fine or second cloths. The capital also contains seventy-five looms for stockings, caps, gloves, and other woollen articles of hosiery, the annual produce of which is 17,500 rix-dollars. There are likewise manufactories of the same kind in different parts of the kingdom. The peasants in several of the Jutland cantons have applied themselves for some time past to the woollen manufacture. The lower class of people of Høeringsholm have sold, in the space of one year, twenty thousand pair of stock-

ings, some of which were thread. Fathers, mothers, children, servants, vie with each other in winter evenings, frequently calling in their neighbours, who bring their work, and form a little society, where industry makes the principal amusement: some card and spin, whilst others knit and work at the loom. This estimable diligence produces an annual sum of sixteen thousand rix-dollars. The articles are sent to Copenhagen, from whence they go into the provinces, and sometimes even abroad.

Working in flax and hemp has hitherto been attended with very little success; indeed it cannot be otherwise, till the country is able to furnish a more considerable quantity of the original materials. Denmark, Norway, and the dutchy, import annually twenty-six thousand skeppunds of flax, hemp, and tow, worth 460,000 rix-dollars; 300,000 for flax; and 160,000 for hemp. We know not exactly how much Denmark itself consumes of these articles, but we should imagine much the greater part, there being four considerable linen manufactories in that country, one in Zealand, one in Funen, and two in Jutland. These employ fifty-five looms, and make twenty-five thousand ells of linen of different qualities: there are also country manufactories in several cantons for home consumption and for foreign trade. Jutland is remarkable for the quality and quantity of its productions. The town of Aalborg alone has sometimes exported linen, in the course of one year, to the value of sixty thousand rix-dollars, the whole manufactured by the Jutland peasants: but, notwithstanding the advantage made of the original materials, whether imported, or the produce of the country, it is still necessary to purchase linen abroad.

There is only one *Sail Cloth Manufactory* worth mentioning, which employs four hundred persons, and yields a profit of 18,000 rix-dollars. Whatever else is wanted comes from Russia.

There are rope-yards at Copenhagen, Elsinour, and many other places. Those in the capital usually sell to the amount of thirty or forty thousand rix-dollars yearly; but one or two years since they imported 24,827 pud of ropes from Russia. The greatest pains is taken to encourage spinning throughout the whole of the dominions, and a patriotic society is formed at Nestwed, purposely to attend to this important article.

Denmark has been obliged for a considerable length of time to import paper from abroad at a great expence: about the year 1759, this article was estimated at 15,000 rix-dollars yearly, and in 1793 at 100,000. According to the register of the Custom-house at Copenhagen, that city alone, in 1790, imported paper of different kinds from Holland, France, and Germany, to the amount of 20,319 rix-dollars. One of the greatest obstacles to the establishment of paper-mills has been the difficulty of procuring rags; many efforts have been employed to remove this difficulty, and they begin to have hopes of succeeding. The paper-mill near Jagersberg makes yearly to the amount of 14,500 rix-dollars: there is one now building on a more extensive plan, from which they have great expectations. Copenhagen contains a good manufactory of paper for hangings, and two for playing cards, which supplies Denmark, Norway, and the dutchies, with 144,000 packs every year. These cards must be stamped, and the stamp set by a person appointed for that purpose, who attends to the sale, and gives in an account to the revenue office.

The exportation of undressed leather was prohibited in 1746, in order to encourage the tan-houses; they are indeed increased since that time, but are still insufficient to supply the country. The manufactory for leather at Copenhagen, established by Henrique, is in high repute; he having certainly discovered a very

advantageous manner of dressing it. There is also another manufactory, two Danish miles from the capital, which sells annually the value of thirty or forty thousand rix-dollars. The town of Randers in Jutland has long been famous for dog-skin gloves ; but these manufactories are now reduced to a very small number, and this branch is transferred to Odensee and Funen, where they likewise make excellent saddles and harness. A small river, near the town, is particularly convenient for the necessary preparations for this business.

CHAP V.

Hospitals. — Surgical Schools. — House of Correction.

THE hospitals * are in general very well regulated, and some, indeed, might serve as models to other countries. The government certainly deserves great commendation in this particular: for, though it seldom has the direction of establishments of this nature, interesting as they undoubtedly are, it is a certain fact (for what reason we know not) that in ill-governed countries there is nothing of this kind sufficiently excellent to engage the attention of a traveller.

The Admiralty Hospital † is in an irregular court; and the building, which is of brick, is not yet finished. The right wing is intended for sailors upon their landing. The principal funds of this establishment amount to 500,000 rix-dollars, and the Lombard yields annually 12,000 crowns. The hospital not being always full, the money saved is placed out at five per cent.

* The hospital at Rome may perhaps be objected as an example to the contrary: but one exception proves nothing against a general observation. Besides, it does not necessarily follow that the most magnificent establishments of this nature must consequently be the best.

† The admiralty has had some idea of building a new marine hospital for some years past.

There are three hundred and fifty beds kept ready to receive the sick ; to each of which is a straw mattress, a common mattress, and a blanket. It was first intended to have a thousand beds ; and there is already sufficient furniture for near five hundred, to which they are adding every day. Each sailor sleeps alone, and is completely clothed upon entering the hospital : when he leaves it, his own clothes are restored to him. All registered sailors are received upon giving up their appointments. There are three large rooms upon the first floor, and the same number on the second ; each of which is furnished with plates, dishes, and other necessary articles, with two large boilers for preparing tea. The third floor is distributed in the same manner. Every sailor pays three rix-dollars for twenty-eight days, which is stopped out of his pay. The whole consists of four separate buildings. Fresh linen is allowed every Saturday ; and there are great store-houses filled with clothes and linen of all sorts. There is one physician in chief ; and the number of surgeons varies according to circumstances. This hospital is kept very clean.

We likewise saw an establishment for poor sailors who beg about the streets, and for their wives and children following any trade. They are placed here as a punishment, and are all employed in spinning and carding for the use of the house. The children card hemp. The revenue is in all 40,000 rix-dollars. Those sailors who have served twenty years are allowed twenty-four rix-dollars per annum. Eight thousand rix-dollars are destined for the widows and orphans of sailors, and 7000 for officers' wives. When sailors in good health are found begging, they are sent to the Holm, where they are severely punished. The children are taught to read and write, and stay in this house till they are fourteen ; when the boys are sent to sea, and the girls are at liberty to do as they please. The poor who are sick sleep two in a bed

of four feet wide ; and there are thirty-seven for those women who are put in as a punishment, who sleep two together when in health : but there are more beds for the sick. There are likewise three rooms for the widows of sailors with pensions, who, in case of illness, are admitted here upon giving up their pensions. The poor are only allowed meat on Sundays, and on other days gruel and beer. They eat six together. There is likewise a small court for those detained here to be punished ; a good vaulted wash-house ; and a magazine of cases of surgical instruments, for the ships belonging to the royal fleet. The surgeons are obliged to take one of these cases on every campaign, and to return it afterwards to the hospital. A case for a frigate costs 100 rix-dollars, and from a 120 to 130 for a man of war. Merchantmen may be provided with them, but not gratis ; and all ships have on board a copy of Jameslins' work upon the maladies common to sailors. There is a kitchen-garden to this hospital sufficiently large for present use ; but they are going to add to it. Each sailor belonging to the fleet is allowed eight ounces of meat without bone, a pot of beer, and half a pound of bread in the forenoon ; and in the evening three quarters of a pound of bread with butter. Wine is also given when ordered for their health, with as much tea as they please, but no sugar*.

* Though these institutions are well understood, and furnish great resources to indigence, they are insufficient for the relief of the number of poor, which amount in Copenhagen to between ten and twelve thousand. A great many abuses have crept into the management of these asylums, the founders of which, though generous and benevolent, had not shown much intelligence in forming their plans. The government, assisted by the observations and labors of different enlightened men, intends to correct these errors and abuses by degrees ; and a new plan was adopted at Copenhagen in 1799. This is established for the relief of those who, in want of the necessaries of life, are unable to procure them for themselves. Care will be taken that the old and infirm shall receive alms ; that those capable of working shall be furnished with employment ;

Frederic's Hospital always contains three hundred sick, two hundred of whom are received gratis; the others pay from three rix-dollars and a half a week to as great a sum as the person pleases, who is treated accordingly. There are some very pretty apartments; and we saw a colonel's lady who, with her daughter, was lodged here. Her apartment consisted of three large rooms, for which she paid ten rix-dollars a week, including board and every thing. The moment a sick person enters this place, he is entirely undressed, new clothes are given him, and his own returned to him upon going away. The annual revenue of this hospital consists of 36,000 rix dollars (of which the stamp upon cards for playing makes a part)*. The expences never amount to this sum; and the remainder is employed in raising a capital, intended, if possible, to produce a sufficient revenue for the main-

that the sick shall be either cured or relieved; and that the youth shall be brought up in habits of virtue and industry. It is indeed by acting upon such principles, and attending to education in general, joined to proper laws for the encouragement of industry, that the number of indigent will be diminished, and that bane of society, common beggars, be banished from the country. The plan about to be adopted at Copenhagen is in imitation of the institutions for the poor which have subsisted for some time at Hamburgh, Munich, and a variety of other places. The hospitals, infirmaries, and work-houses at Copenhagen, either depend on the new administration, or have some connexion with it. The public will be informed of the amount of the fund destined for these charities, and the manner in which it is employed. Subscriptions from the benevolent part of the inhabitants will be received, and added to the original fund, arising from donations, legacies, and duties ceded to it by government.

Amongst the public charities in the provinces of Denmark, those in the town of Randers have been much distinguished for some years past. In 1798, the number of poor were diminished from a hundred and fifty-seven to a hundred and sixteen, and this was principally owing to a well-managed work-house. The inhabitants subscribe an annual sum, and the governors of the institution publish the most exact accounts of the expences.

* The expence has increased since that time, and now amounts to 43,000 rix-dollars annually. The revenue not being proportionably augmented, they have been obliged to borrow to supply the deficiency.

tenance of three hundred sick. The hospital is divided into two parts, one for in, and the other for out-patients. There are a hundred and fifty beds in each division, with five physicians for the in-patients, and five surgeons, that is to say, one chief and four pupils, for the out-ones. The sick-rooms are kept very neat, with a nurse in each, who has her bed there; and likewise twelve women, who sit up all night, and who have other rooms in which they may sleep during the day. Indeed, there are fifty women employed in the service of this establishment. In every room is a thermometer, with one or two stoves, according to the size, and a pair of scales to weigh the medicines; also a variety of pipes, which communicate to the roof, and are thought preferable to ventilators. The beds are three feet wide, with curtains and very fine sheets: indeed, all the linen used in this hospital is extremely good. The physician visits the sick twice a day, and his prescription is fastened to the foot of every bed. Two thousand five hundred sick are generally received into this hospital annually*; and three or four die every week, who are exposed for some days to view in another apartment. In winter they only bury twice a week, but three or four times in summer. The sick have all separate beds; and in the number of rooms we passed through we saw none with more than twenty-four. These chambers are ten feet high: every bed is separate from the others; and there is room for a third more than there are at present. The rooms are very light; and almost all of them have a fire-place at the end, for warming milk, broth, and tea for the sick, who are never refused any one of these three articles: and there is always a large copper of boiling water in the kitchen for making tea. Amongst the

* Two thousand, five hundred and sixty-six were received into this hospital in 1798: 2,008 were sufficiently recovered to quit it at the end of the year; 304 remained; and 248 died.

number of rooms they showed us were two filled with people with broken legs. We also saw a room for electricity, a remedy much employed in this place; and a theatre for performing surgical operations and giving anatomical lectures. There are tin night-lamps in the different apartments, which likewise serve to heat all necessary articles. The academy for cadets, by subscribing 200 crowns per annum, is allowed to send it's sick pupils to this hospital, where they are well attended and have separate rooms. The part of the house allotted to in-patients, is more airy than the other; and in December 1790, there were a great many vacant beds, a circumstance that never happened before since it was first established. There is a pulley with a rope in every room, to which are two wooden handles; and this machine is intended as exercise for those sick who are not able to go out.

This hospital, founded in 1756, admits no patients afflicted with the itch or the venereal disease, there being particular establishments for the cure of those disorders. The kitchen is handsome; and we tasted both the soup and bread, of which they make three sorts; white, brown mixed with wheat and rye, and brown of rye alone. The meat is also very good. They bake three times a week; and the sick are allowed gruel and bread and butter in an evening: their common drink is beer. There is an apartment purposely for bathing, with a variety of stoves, and cocks to let out the water upon any particular parts of the person. A quantity of leeches are kept in the same place, and put into large jugs of water, which is changed every two days. The number of these animals proves how much they have recourse to them; besides which, the whole city is furnished from this repository. In one of the pavilions are thirteen rooms upon the first floor, for those who are at their own expence. These are very neat,

and many people, even in good circumstances, prefer being here, on account of the ease with which they can obtain assistance of every kind. Amongst gentlemen of this description we saw a counsellor of war. The front of this hospital consists of one large building with seven windows, and two pavilions with nine, and three on the sides; a small court with an iron grate; and in the inside a large square court, 228 feet by 162, with nineteen windows towards the principal entrance, fifteen on the sides, and sixteen on the inside; three gates, and eight rows of trees. There is the completest apothecary's shop in one of the pavilions we ever saw; and the laboratory is very large and magnificent, containing furnaces of every possible description, with cocks that furnish water in great abundance, and a machine with six pestles and three mortars, which may be moved with the greatest ease. Above are two large store-houses; the one filled with dried articles, such as herbs, roots, flowers, leaves, and fruits; the other with liquids. There are also other rooms containing drugs, and all things necessary for an apothecary's use; for this house supplies the neighbourhood with medicines. Twenty-one people are employed in this department. The hospital is provided with roots and greens of every kind from a kitchen-garden opposite the building: and the whole of this establishment is very excellent, and deserves the greatest encomiums.

The Surgery School is a small building, with two pillars at the entrance. Here they showed us a little chemical laboratory, and a convenient anatomical theatre, with the following inscription in gold letters upon marble:—

CHRISTIANUS SEPTIMUS REX, SALUTI CIVIUM CONSULENS, DOMUM
HANC IN GLORIAM IMPERII IMMORTALEM FUNDAVIT.

There is a variety of niches intended for busts, and two are already put up, one of which is that of Krüger*. The roof of this theatre is arched, and is very handsome. There are seven rows of steps, and five large windows, which cast a most agreeable light. Next to it is a small room, containing a very few anatomical preparations; among which we saw some injections made with quicksilver, very curiously done, particularly the lymphatic vessels, the heart, and the lungs. In order to preserve these different parts, they are covered over with varnish, and camphire mixed amongst them. The surgical instruments are kept in a small press; they are made in Copenhagen, but are very incomplete. The dissecting-hall is nothing extraordinary; and in another they showed us three preparations in wax, as large as life; and four skeletons, two of them of negroes. Three surgeons, who receive pensions from the king, live in this house, and a fourth at the hospital. There is no particular time fixed for going through a course of surgery; and there are from a hundred to a hundred and fifty students. The expence of this establishment is defrayed by the revenue of the post; it amounts to 3,600 rix-dollars, and is thus distributed: 900 to the first professor, who has likewise apartments allowed him; the second and third have no salaries; 150 to the four pensioned by the king; 200 to the chemistry lecturer; fifty to one upon experiments; 200 to a secretary; and 120 to a porter. One of the pensioners who acts as assistant to the academy has an additional salary of fifty rix-

* This gentleman's death was occasioned by that of his friend Vinclef, at Paris. He received the letter which informed him of it while he was giving a lesson of anatomy. On reading it he changed color, and said aloud, "The news I have just received has killed me: I feel I can never recover it." He was carried home, and died in a few hours. This account was given us by a person who was present at the time.

dollars. Paper, pens, &c. are estimated at thirty rix-dollars; and the remainder is employed in paying the king's and city taxes, buying instruments, bodies for dissection, and other necessary expences.

Lying-in Hospital. The women who are delivered in this place pay six crowns a week. They are at liberty to come in with masks upon their faces, and have each a separate room, some of which are very handsome. They may also quit the hospital without being seen, and without telling their names. There are sixty beds, and many of them at the king's expence. Those who have not separate apartments may be here for three crowns a week: but this is the least ever received. Each room has five or six beds, and we saw one indeed with seven. There are twenty women attending in this house, one nurse to each room. Twelve of these women learn midwifery, but are obliged to attend six months beforehand. There is a professor, a chief woman midwife, and four pupils, who only stay here eight months, and then give place to others. The expences of this house amount to 6,000 crowns per annum*; but as the article of linen is very great, those years when it is necessary to have a new stock are much more expensive. The women who pay are at liberty to go out when they please, but are obliged to pay at least for one week. Those who are admitted gratis are always kept till they are entirely out of danger. The kitchen belonging to this house, and every thing relating to it, is kept in the neatest manner. There is a wash-house, a place where they kill their own meat during winter, a stove for drying linen, and a chimney for

* Since increased to 7 or 8,000 rix-dollars. The number of lying-in women amount annually to from 800 to a 1000.

smoking meats, which is done with oak bark from the tan-houses. The lady who is at the head of this institution, has had the sole direction of it ever since it's first foundation, which has been about twenty-four years. There is a room on purpose for christenings, which take place once a week; but if a child is taken suddenly and dangerously ill, the nurses and midwives have the privilege of baptising it.

From the lying-in hospital there is a communication to that for orphans and foundlings, where we were shown three rooms, in two of which were seven, and in one six beds. There is place for a great many more: but the beds were not all full; which was likewise the case in the lying-in hospital. Each nurse suckles at least two children, but never more than three; and the moment a child can leave the house safely, it is sent into the country, and intrusted to the care of a peasant. The king pays about one shilling a week for each of these children till they are six years old; when they are able to be of use to the peasant, and earn as much as they cost him*. If it is a boy, the peasant can at a proper age send him for a soldier instead of his own son: which is very well imagined, because the man has a personal interest in taking proper care of the child. The nurses belonging to this house have two marks a week, and great attention paid to their food. There is a fire-place upon every floor for keeping milk constantly warm. No cradles are allowed, and the women sleep with the children; which we think a bad plan, and subject to

* In the interval between 1775 and 1795, nine thousand, one hundred and ninety-seven children were placed in this manner. This lying-in hospital has a fund of 57,000 rix-dollars: and is supported by the generosity of the king; by the product of a tax upon horses, kept as an article of luxury; and by the interest of a sum left for that purpose by General Classen.

great inconveniences. A house is built at the bottom of the garden for inoculating the infants, but they had not begun to make use of it at the end of 1790.

The Great Hospital for Citizens is opposite the last-mentioned houses, and has thirty-three windows in front, with three stories towards the street. It usually contains 700 people of both sexes and all ages. Beggars found in the streets are put in provisionally, and sent afterwards to the house of correction, where they are obliged to work. Those people also who are in the hospital are allowed to work, and means given them of doing so. This institution is at the city's expence, and costs forty thousand rix-dollars per annum. Every regiment has it's own particular hospital.

*The House of Correction** has room for six hundred people, but when we saw it there were not more than 460. Malefactors are not reckoned amongst the 600: but all vagabonds, either men or women, found begging in the streets, are brought hither, and an account given of every thing that passes to a particular directory once a week. The criminals confined for life are obliged to saw and grate Brazil wood, and the malefactors are in dungeons with iron bars. Six men can make forty pounds of wood grated into powder in a day; but they are obliged to be relieved every four minutes, it being impossible to support such hard work for a longer time. There is nothing disgusting in the appearance of this place, but we thought it very ill guarded. The infirmary is very large, but not well kept, and the bread far from good. The

* There are many establishments of this nature in the Danish dominions. That at Christiana is particularly well managed. The persons confined are about 200, who are lodged and fed in a very proper manner.

men are obliged to card, and the women to spin, a certain quantity of wool for the use of the house, on pain of punishment. The women imprisoned for life are all kept in one apartment, and the greatest part of them have been whipped and marked: some have their children with them. There are two separate entrances to this house; one for malefactors, and the other for those placed here for correction. Men and women work together, but the malefactors are kept apart. The women are allowed to lie-in here; but both sexes are examined on their entrance, and those afflicted with the venereal disease are sent out of town to be cured. If any one wishes to place a child in the house of correction, leave must be obtained from the chancery, and two marks a week paid by the parents. Children are sometimes sent hither to be instructed in the principles of their religion. The women and children who are confined for correction sleep two together under penthouses; and the right wing is destined for people of that description, whilst the left is kept for malefactors. The building is round a long court, with a small pavilion in the middle, where the Brazil wood is sawed. Shields and O'Brien were confined in this house, and left it the very day and almost the very instant we were there. They were permitted to stay only one hour in Copenhagen, and a boat was in readiness to convey them into Sweden*. The following are the revenues of

* We think it indispensably necessary to mention an event which has made a great noise throughout Europe; and we will relate it exactly as it was told us upon the spot. In 1789, a lieutenant in the royal navy of Sweden, named Benzelstierna, came to Copenhagen, determined to burn the Russian squadron which was to winter in the port. Having bought and prepared a merchantman, lately arrived with a cargo of wool from Ostend, to serve as a fire-ship, he only waited a favorable wind to execute his plan; when some difficulties arising about paying for the said ship, the captain, a native of Ireland, of the name of O'Brien, went to consult Mr. Taafé, another Irishman settled as

the house of correction: first, the interest of a capital belonging to it of about 20,000 crowns; second, all confiscations made in case of a trespass against the privilege of the house, or against other public ordinances touching what the butchers and bakers sell at market; third, five per cent. out of the first year's salary received by people in possession of civil employments; fourth, a

a merchant at Copenhagen, and at the same time told him the purpose for which the vessel was bought. . Thae, justly incensed at such a scheme, and fearing the consequences of a connexion with O'Brien, went immediately and revealed the affair to the chief of the police, who directly made his report to the commandant of the town. O'Brien was arrested, and confined in the prison belonging to the town-hall. As to Benzelsierna, after having hid himself for some days, and finding it impossible to make his escape, he delivered himself up to the commandant, who sent him to the citadel. The plot was discovered the last night in February, and the first of March was fixed for carrying it into execution. Every possible measure had been taken to insure the success of the plan; and the flight of the people concerned in it, who wished to get the ship for nothing, and to cheat the proprietor, occasioned the discovery. Those who gave us these particulars added, that the king of Sweden wrote several letters to Albedyl, his minister at that time in Copenhagen, who refused for a long time to attempt so dangerous an enterprise: but having received another letter from his sovereign, to acquaint him, in very harsh terms, that if he would not comply he would charge others with the commission, he resolved to obey. Mr. Sprengporten, the Swedish ambassador, was not concerned in the business, and, being entirely ignorant of what was going forward, continued to enjoy the same degree of consideration at the court of Denmark. Soon after the plot was discovered, Albedyl went away, but returned afterwards, and wished to take leave of the court; where, however, he was not received, and was obliged to quit Copenhagen without going through that ceremony. Shields and O'Brien were banished for ever from Denmark. The first was the landlord of *Le petit Hôtel Royal*, where the culprits lived, and was thought to be concerned in the business. Benzelsierna was exiled for life to an island upon the coast of Norway.

The above is the account we received from impartial people: we will not, however, in the smallest degree, vouch for it's authenticity. If indeed it was clearly proved, it would still be in dispute how far the right of war extends; whether it would entitle the king of Sweden to make such an attempt? and whether the risk the Danish fleet must have run would not have been a just requital for the premeditated invasion of 1788?

contribution of 2,500 rix-dollars from a tax divided amongst the houses in the city for the maintenance of the poor; fifth, 1,000 rix-dollars from the revenue of the lottery; sixth, forty rix-dollars from the revenue of the Lombard; seventh, the price paid for the wool spun in the house, amounting to about four thousand rix-dollars; eighth, the produce of the wood for dyeing, valued at nearly fifteen hundred rix-dollars; besides other trifling revenues, making in the whole from fourteen to fifteen thousand rix-dollars. The expences are generally equal to the receipts, and perhaps now rather less.

CHAP. VI.

State of the Military in 1790.

WE know not whether we ought to attribute the perfect order which reigns throughout this part of the administration to the Crown Prince's decided taste for every thing military, but it certainly deserves the highest encomiums; and Denmark, though enjoying all the blessings of peace, seemed to us to be perfectly prepared for immediate war. We only indeed mean to speak of the state of her troops; for as to the other article, money—which, to say the truth, is equally necessary with men—we will venture to declare this country is not better supplied than many others.

The army in Denmark and the different dutchies was formed, according to the plan of 1785, of thirty-eight squadrons, forty-four battalions, and two companies of chasseurs.

But, according to the plan for 1790, there are now in Denmark thirty-six squadrons, consisting of five thousand nine hundred and nine men;—twenty companies of artillery, of three thousand one hundred and thirty-five men, including four hundred and eight horse-artillery;—and forty-three battalions, of

thirty-one thousand two hundred and ninety-two men.—Total in Denmark, forty thousand five hundred and thirty-six men.

In Norway there are sixteen squadrons of four thousand three hundred and forty-nine men;—thirty-eight battalions, (two of which are couriers on the ice) making thirty thousand four hundred and twenty-nine men, and a company for garrisons of forty-four men,

Total in Norway, thirty-four thousand eight hundred and twenty-two; and in the two kingdoms .	75,358
Out of which number they intend, in war time, to take to serve as battalions in <i>dépôt</i> .	11,658

There will therefore remain, ready to go into the field . 63,700

In the year 1796 the army consisted of seventy-four thousand six hundred and fifty-four men, and the militia. These were divided in the following manner:—

THE CAVALRY IN DENMARK AND THE DIFFERENT DUTCHES.

	Men.	Horses.
Body guard, one squadron . . .	153	1,480
Cuirassiers guards, four squadrons . . .	670	636
Dragoon guards, four squadrons . . .	670	636
Zeland cuirassiers	670	636
Schleswig ditto	670	636
Holstein ditto	670	636
Jutland dragoons	670	636
Funen dragoons	670	636
Hussars, including the Bosniacs, seven squadrons	1,159	1,100
Chasseurs, one squadron	54	37
	<hr/> 6,066 <hr/>	<hr/> 7,063 <hr/>

CAVALRY IN NORWAY.

	Men.	Horses.
Aggershuus dragoons . . .	1,088	663
Smaaleha ditto . . .	1,087	662
Opland ditto . . .	1,087	662
Drontheim ditto . . .	1,087	662
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	4,349	2,649
	<hr/>	<hr/>

INFANTRY IN DENMARK AND THE DUTCHIES.

	Men.	Horses.
Company of land cadets . . .	34	8
Guards . . .	487	—
Danish regiment of guards . . .	1,960	6
Norway ditto . . .	1,960	6
King's regiment . . .	1,960	6
Queen's ditto . . .	1,758	6
Crown Prince's ditto . . .	1,960	6
Prince Frederick's ditto . . .	1,960	6
Funen regiment . . .	1,757	6
Zealand ditto . . .	1,960	6
First Jutland regiment . . .	1,757	6
Second ditto . . .	1,758	6
Third ditto . . .	1,757	6
Oldenburg regiment . . .	1,758	6
Schleswig ditto . . .	1,758	6
Holstein ditto . . .	1,758	6
Zealand chasseurs . . .	379	3
Schleswig ditto . . .	423	3
First battalion of Zealand light infantry . . .	379	3
Second ditto . . .	379	3
Battalion of Schleswig light infantry . . .		
Holstein ditto . . .	379	3
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	28,341	107
	<hr/>	<hr/>

	Men. *	Horses.	
Bornholm militia .	1,325	520	
Two companies of artillery, in garrison at			Men.
Cronenberg .			321
Company in garrison at Nyburg .			169
_____ at Corsøer .			68
_____ at Fredericsort .			68
_____ at Fladstrand .			53
_____ at Heligoland .			51
Total in Garrison .			730

INFANTRY IN NORWAY.

	Men.	Horses.
The Southern Division regiment .	2,860	
The Northern Division ditto .	2,860	
First Aggershuus regiment .	2,190	
Second ditto .	2,190	
Tellemarken regiment .	2,190	
Opland ditto .	3,147	
With the first battalion of Skielœulers or		
Couriers on the Ice .	480	
First Drontheim regiment .	3,147	
with the second battalion of Skielœulers	480	
Second Drontheim regiment .	3,147	
Bergenhuus regiment .	4,104	
Westerlehn ditto .	3,147	
Corps of Chasseurs .	567	3
	30,509	3
There are moreover the corps of engineers,		
consisting of .	35	
The corps of artillery .	3,299	421
Total of the Army .	74,654	9,430

Of these 74,654 men, there were 50,880 Militia, divided in the following manner:—

In Denmark and the Dutchies	3,584 Cavalry.
	18,772 Infantry.
In Norway	4,924 Cavalry.
	24,300 Infantry.
Total	50,880

There are also one hundred and fifty-seven civil employments attached to the army. The horse-artillery has been raised lately, as well as the different corps of chasseurs and the hosniacs. The Bornholm militia is raised in that island, and defends the coast. A corps is included in the Norway infantry, which merits to be more particularly described: this is the one termed Couriers on the Ice; those destined to enter it are trained to climb mountains and skate on the ice. The skates are long and thin planks, tied with a leather-strap; and the courier's dress consists of a very short jacket, a sur-tout, pantaloons, and cap, all of leather; they carry a carbine, a very long hanger, and a stick armed with iron-spikes. The baggage is transported on sledges, drawn by men. These couriers, during war, tease and tire out the enemy in narrow passes, and thus second the operations of the army. The above table makes no mention of the corps of Rœraas volunteers. The miners of Rœraas in Norway were taught military manœuvres in 1772, that in case of necessity they might be able to defend the frontiers, near which the miners are situated. This corps is divided into two companies of each an hundred and fifty men, who are commanded by the principal persons concerned in the mines. This corps was confirmed by government in 1791. The late events induced them to form another corps of the same nature at Fredericsvaesk, the Cannon Foundry in Denmark; the present strength of it is estimated at about one thousand five hundred men, of which are, an

100 Seamen,
100 Matrosses,
100 Chasseurs,
100 Cavalry,
800 to 1000 Infantry.

The King appoints and pays the superior officers, and supplies them with arms. There is also a corps of chasseurs, consisting of one hundred men, formed on the same occasion, by the patriotic zeal of a society of young men of Copenhagen.

This plan will equally serve for the army in 1791; except, indeed, the battalion of four hundred and eighty-two men, belonging to the garrison at Cronenburg, which was to be reformed on the first of January 1791, and incorporated into the regiments which compose the garrison of Copenhagen. These regiments will for the future detach as many men as are necessary for the service of the said fortress, and this detachment will be relieved every month.

Reforms which were on the 1st of January 1791.

First.—The three first staff-officers in the cavalry regiments, viz. the colonel, the lieutenant-colonel, and first major, are no longer to be, as formerly,* at the head of a squadron; so that the second major will have the first squadron, and the captains the others:—but, in order to satisfy the said three staff-officers for the loss of their squadrons, their pay will be increased; and for the future there will be five officers in each squadron, viz. a captain, a second captain, a first lieutenant, a second lieutenant, and a cornet. The rank of third major is abolished throughout the whole army.

Second.—Of the eleven officers belonging to the war department, five only are to remain; and fifty crowns a quarter are to be withheld from the wages of the chiefs of these offices, and twenty-five from the first clerks, which will not be given up to them till the end of the year, and not even then, unless, after their conduct has been examined, there is very just reason to approve it.

Third.—The corps of artillery is to be so formed, that every brigade of infantry consisting of five battalions shall have one

* According to the last regulations they are restored to being at the head of a squadron.

company of artillery, to each of which shall be added seven men.—There shall likewise be a company of horse-artillery, and another for garrisons not only in Denmark, but in Holstein and Norway. According to this new plan, the expence of the artillery will amount to one hundred and forty-seven thousand crowns per annum.

The Army in Denmark and Holstein, in 1790.

INFANTRY.	MEN.
1. In Zealand	14,506
2. In Holstein	10,574
3. In Jutland	4,941
Total	<u>30,021</u>

viz.

- 2 Battalions of guards,
- 35 Battalions, forming fourteen regiments,
- 4 Battalions of light infantry,
- 1 Battalion of Cronenburg. (This battalion was to be reformed in 1791.)
- 2 Battalions or corps of chasseurs.
- 1 Battalion of field chasseurs.

Total . 45 Battalions.

CAVALRY.	MEN.
2 Squadrons of guards	300
28 Squadrons, in seven regiments of cuirassiers and dragoons	5,797
6 Squadrons of hussars	1,003
Total . 36 Squadrons	<u>7,100</u>

ARTILLERY.

10 Companies of 243 men	2,430
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3 Companies of horse-artillery of 236 men	708
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Total . 13 Companies	3,138 Men.
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Total of the Army	40,259 Men.
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The Army in Norway.

CAVALRY.

MEN.

4 Régiments of dragoons, consisting of eight com- panies of 100 men each	3,200
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2 Régiments of infantry, partly inlisted, and partly national troops .	4,424
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16 Companies of grenadiers, of 150 men each	2,400
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22 National battalions	26,400
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6 Companies of couriers on the ice, (skiclœulers)	600
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4 Companies of chasseurs	400
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Total of Men	34,224
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ARTILLERY.

1. Battalion of artillery for garrisons,
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1 Ditto of horse-artillery.

EXPENDITURE OF THE ARMY.

A Regiment of Infantry, consisting of 1,000 enlisted Men, and 500 National Troops, who are only upon Duty Twenty-eight Days, and receive no Pay at other Times.

THE STAFF.		YEARLY PAY.		
		Rix.	Ske.	
A colonel	.	1300	0	} They are also paid as having Companies.
Lieutenant-colonel	.	300	0	
First major	.	150	0	
Second major	.	60	0	
Two captains of the staff over and above their pay, 92 r. f.	.	184	0	
One adjutant with the additional pay of	.	60	0	
One quarter-master	.	230	0	
Expence of paper	.	234	0	
Auditor	.	230	0	
Surgeon-major	.	240	0	
Forty skellings is allowed each enlisted soldier for medicines; 20 skellings for the national troops, in consideration of their wives and children; which make for every regiment	.	587	8	
Five surgeons for the companies, at 60 rix-dollars each	.	300	0	
One drum-major, at 12 skellings a day	.	45	60	
Carry forward,		3,920	68	

	YEARLY PAY.
	Rix. Sk.
Brought forward,	3,920 68
Six hautboys, at 12 skellings a day	273 72
One gun-smith	53 22
Sixteen skellings each soldier for mending and re- pairing, which for 1480 men make	263 32
One provost	12 skellings a day for the two
One servant for the provost	
	91 24

Company of Grenadiers.

Total of the company 115 men, at 6 skellings and 4. Total 3878 rix-dollars, 75 skellings, includ- ing three officers. For the two	7,757 58
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A Company of Musqueteers.

113 Men, 6 skellings a day. Total 3734 rix-dol- lars, 28 skellings, including three officers, eight companies of the same kind. Total	29,874 32
Six ensigns, two of whom are grenadiers, and four musqueteers, at 120 rix-dollars. Total	720 0
500 National troops, at 6 skellings for twenty-eight days	875 0
Ten national drummers, at 6 skellings	17 48
Eighty national artillery, twenty-eight days	140 0
The whole regiment of 1748 men costs	43,986 68
Total of the clothing, including the recruits	11,464 82
Carry forward,	55,451 54

		YEARLY PAY.	
		Rix.	Ske.
Brought forward,		55,451	54
Other expences, such as the infirmary, the chaplain, &c.		1,011	16
Extraordinary expences		930	0
		<hr/>	
The whole expence of a regiment		57,392	70
Deduction for men absent on furloughs		10,619	1
		<hr/>	
Remaining expence of a regiment		46,773	69*
		<hr/> <hr/>	

The State and the Expence of a Regiment of Dragoons.

THE STAFF.

One colonel		1,800	0
One lieutenant-colonel		300	0
One first major†		150	0

[These sums were augmented in 1791, when the squadrons were taken from them.]

One second major, who has only the revenue of his squadron.

Carry forward,

 1,750 0

* The regiments of infantry, composed of five hundred enlisted men and one thousand national troops, only cost 36,562 rix-dollars.

† The regiments of cavalry have, properly speaking, but one major; but the captains have frequently the rank of major in the army.

		YEARLY PAY.	
		Rix.	Ske.
Brought forward		1,750	0
One quarter-master	Pay and keep of a horse	266	500 0
	For paper and other expences	234	
One auditor.	Pay and keep of a horse	254	0
One surgeon-major	Pay and keep of a horse	266	532 0
	Salary for 340 inlisted men, with their wives and chil- dren, at 48 ske. a man	170	
	For 288 national troops or militia, at 38 ske. a man	96	
Four surgeons for the squadron, at 60 rix- dollars		240	0
For an officer, or inferior officer, who attends to the horses in the manège		60	0
One gunsmith, whose wages are 62 rix-dol- lars, 70½ skellings, to keep in order 608 musquets and 620 pair of pistols. Twelve pair of pistols make 6 complete armatures. There are then 614 complete armatures, at 24 skellings—153 rix-dollars, 48 skel- lings.—Total		216	22½
Four sadlers for the squadron, at 13 skellings a day		197	68
One kettle-drum, at 13 skellings a day		49	41
Two provosts and a boy, at 23 skellings a day		87	43
Carry forward		3,886	78½

Rix. Skc.

Brought forward, 3,886 78½

The State and Expence of a Squadron.

	Rix.	Skc.
One captain or commander	750	0
One second captain*	284	0
One first lieutenant	192	0
One second lieutenant	164	0
One cornet	140	0
One master of the waggons, at 18 skc.	68	42
Eight corporals, at 13 skellings	395	40
Two trumpets, at 13 skellings	98	82
Seventy-two inlisted dragoons, at seven skellings	916	24
Seventy-two national dragoons, at 7 skellings a day, for twenty-eight days	147	0

A squadron costs 3,155 92

The four squadrons amount to	12,623	80
For recruiting	800	0
For new horses	1,500	0

	Rix.	Skc.
The clothing of thirty-six inferior offi- cers, at 9 rix-dollars, 29 $\frac{1}{2}$ skellings	234	86½
Nine kettle-drums and trumpets, <i>idem</i>	83	69 $\frac{1}{2}$

Carry forward, 18,810 62½

The second captain's pay is now 300 rix-dollars.

	Rix.	Ske.
Brought forward,	18,810	62 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Rix.	Ske.
160 Dragoons upon duty, at 8 rix-dollars, 94 $\frac{1}{8}$ skellings	1,476	74
104 Mounted dragoons, who have a furlough, at 8 rix-dollars, $\frac{1}{8}$ skellings	832	6 $\frac{1}{2}$
Twenty-four dismounted dragoons on furlough, at 6 rix-dollars, 76 $\frac{1}{8}$ skellings	163	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
288 National dragoons, at 2 rix-dollars, 65 $\frac{1}{8}$ skellings	771	38
One provost	8	9 $\frac{1}{8}$
One provost's man	7	62 $\frac{1}{8}$
Expence of clothing*	40	0
Shoeing and attendance of 333 horses, at two rix-dollars	666	0
Keep of 333 horses, at five rix-dollars	1,665	0
For the commissary of the equipage, and his register,	16	48
Fees to the chaplain for 339 men, at twelve ske.	42	36
For the care of the sick	120	0
There is besides an increase of pay for		
	Rix.	Ske.
The officer who acts as adjutant	60	0
The dragoon employed in the manège	15	0
For one dragoon in each squadron who shoes the horses, at eighteen rix-dollars	72	0
Carry forward,	24,998	15 $\frac{1}{2}$

* The prices of the different parts of the clothing are as follow:—A shirt, fifty-six French sous; a pair of stockings, twenty-eight; gloves, thirty-two; pair of shoes, eighty-eight; stock, eight; coat, waistcoat, and belt, six rix-dollars, seventy-one skellings; breeches, one rix-dollar, eighty skellings; hat and plume, one rix-dollar, fifteen skellings; cloth cap, one rix-dollar, fourteen skellings; cloak, five rix-dollars, thirty-two skellings; housings, two rix-dollars, sixty-four skellings; saddle, &c. nine rix-dollars, forty-eight skellings; boots and spurs, four rix-dollars.

	Rix.	Ske.	
Brought forward,	24,998	15½	
	Rix.	Ske.	
For the sadler of the first squadron, who overlooks the others	12	0	} 424 40
For those who take care of the horses belonging to the dragoons who are on furlough, except on field-days:—therefore for 245 days, at one skelling, it amounts to	265	40	
Repairs, and other extraordinary expences			
			864 0
Forage for 333 horses during nine months or 273 days, at 3-eighths of a bushel of oats per day, which make 4261 tons 2¼ of a bushel, at 84 skellings a ton	3,728	66½	} 12,382 52
At twelve pounds of hay per day, which make 2120 waggon-loads, twenty-one lispunds, twelve pounds; at one rix-dollar, 64 skellings the waggon-load,	3,551	12½	
At six pounds of straw per day, which make 1420 waggon-loads, ten lisp. fourteen pounds, at 64 skellings the cart-load	946	93	
At ½ a bushel of oats per day, which makes 378 ton, at 84 skellings a ton,	330	72	
At twelve pounds of hay per day, which make 189 waggon-loads, at one rix-dollar, sixty-four skellings	315	0	
Carry forward,	38,669	11½	

Rix. Ske.

Brought forward, 38,669 11½

	Rix.	Ske.
At six pounds of straw per day, making 126 waggon-loads, at sixty-four skellings	84	0
For each of the said 288 horses for the national dragoons, at 12 rix-dollars a-year for their keep	3,426	0

These sums are furnished by the Chamber of Finances, and, in order to lessen them, furloughs are granted to as many men as can possibly be spared from the service, which at least are 128, whose pay during 337 days is put into the regimental stock, and amounts to . . . 2,145 32

The fixed product arising from the sale of horses belonging to reformed corps, 240 0
Other trifling articles . . . 28 39

Deduct, ————— 2,413 71

The whole Expence of a Regiment of Dragoons,
after deducting 2,413 rix-dollars, 71 skellings,
amounts to 36,255 36½

The coat, waistcoat, hat, cloth cap, and gloves, are to last four years; the breeches two years; the boots six years; the cloak, saddle, &c. twelve years.

The two regiments of hussars consist of a hundred and twenty-six men. There is some small difference in the officers' appoint-

ments; but the general expence of the two corps amounts to 37,717 rix-dollars, 10 skellings.

N. B In 1692 the King of Denmark's forces consisted as follow:—

Horse and dragoons in Denmark, Holstein, &c.	6,950
Foot in the same	17,000
Horse and dragoons in Norway	1,256
Foot in Norway, including the reserves	14,300
	<hr/>
In all	39,506
	<hr/>

The common soldier's pay was seventeen stivers a week; the rest went for bread, quarters, and clothes, which they have once in three years from head to foot; and after eighteen months, shoes, stockings, breeches, shirt, and cravat. It was permitted to the common soldiers to work when quartered; but then during this permission their officers receive all the benefit of their pay.

The military has been put entirely on a new footing since the above account. Inlisting is no longer the mode of raising troops, but all young men, citizen's sons excepted, are subject to serve at the age of twenty-one. These draw lots, and whomsoever is drawn, is obliged to serve during six years. By such means, from six to seven thousand men are annually added to the army, which in Denmark and the dutchies amounts to about forty thousand*. A soldier is obliged to remain in garrison two years out of the six; the other four years his presence is only required in May and June, the months of general exercise. There is always a standing army composed of one-third of the whole and

* Norway is not included in this calculation.

the rest may be assembled in the space of forty-eight hours. After having served the six years, he enters the militia, which consists of ten regiments, or sixty battalions, which are well regulated, and assemble every other year for three days, and the intermediate year only for one day. In this militia he remains eight years, and afterwards belongs to the militia of reserve, till the age of forty-eight. The reserve is scarcely ever assembled, and will never be called out into actual services but in cases of the greatest emergency



CHAP. VII.

*Royal Navy.—East-India Company.—Commerce.—
Custom-House.*

THE following tables show the state of the Danish navy in 1790.

State of the Danish Navy in 1790.

TABLE I.

NAMES OF THE VESSELS.	CANNON.			The Depth of the Hold from the Lower Deck Beam.			The Draught of Water loaded.			Height of the Bat- tery by the Main Beam.	Displacement of Water without reckoning the Bordage.	Displacement of Water.	Names of the Builders.	The Years they were built.	The Years when Rebuilt.
	Feet.	Feet.	Inches.	Feet.	Feet.	Inches.	Aft.	Fore.	Feet.						
Ships of the Line.															
1. The Christian the Seventh	90	182	50	21	3	32	21	19	9	5	1525	1603	Krabbe	1767	1789
2. The Superb	80	180	47	21	6	30	20	18	3	5	1379	1454	1768	1789
3. The Neptune	80	184	48	21	6	31	20	19	7	5	1404	1480	Gerner	1769	1789
4. The Princess Sophia Frederica	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1213	1773	1789
5. The Justice	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1777	1789
6. The Hereditary Prince Frederic	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1782	1789
7. The Prince Royal	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1784	1789
8. The Northern Star	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1785	1789
9. The Fionia	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1787	1789
10. The Zealand	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1787	1789
11. The Odin	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1788	1789
12. The Three Crowns	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1789	1789
13. upon the stocks	74	172	45	21	1	30	20	19	5	5	1170	1215	1790	1790
14. The Denmark	70	164	44	20	11	27	6	20	18	4	1094	1159	{ Imitation of the old Elephant }	1757	1789
15. The Jutland	70	166	44	20	7	27	6	20	18	9	1333	1170	Krabbe	1760	1789
16. The Lion of the North	70	167	45	21	1	28	6	20	18	9	1167	1226	1763	1789
17. The Oresund	70	167	45	21	1	28	6	20	18	9	1167	1226	1766	1789
18. The Elephant	70	164	44	20	11	27	6	20	18	9	1094	1159	{ Imitation of the old Elephant }	1769	1789
19. The Wagrie	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	964	1010	Krabbe	1773	1789
20. The Oldenburg	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	970	1016	Gerner	1779	1789
21. The Dithmarsken	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	970	1016	1780	1789
22. The Princess Louisa Augusta	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	970	1016	1783	1789
23. The Mars	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	970	1016	1784	1789
24. The Indigent	64	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	970	1016	1786	1789
25. The Princess Wilhelmina Caroline	60	157	42	20	2	26	19	17	10	5	976	1020	Krabbe	1764	1789
26. The Holstein	60	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	964	1010	1778	1789
27. The Dannecbrog	60	158	42	20	2	26	19	18	1	5	964	1010	1778	1789
28. The Sleswick	50	139	38	18	4	23	6	18	11	4	687	719	{ Upon the Plan of the Fionia }	1767	1789
29. The Santa Cruz	50	139	38	18	4	23	6	18	11	4	687	722	1780	1789
30. The Ebenetzer	50	139	38	18	4	23	6	18	11	4	687	722	1780	1789
Old Vessels destined for short Cruises in the Enclaves, and repaired in such a manner as to make them serve three or four years longer.															
1. The Prince Royal	70	164	44	20	11	27	6	20	18	4	1094	1159	{ Imitation of the old Elephant }	1756	1789
2. The Zealand	60	154	41	18	11	29	19	17	4	6	900	960	1750	1789
3. The Iceland	60	154	41	18	11	29	19	17	4	6	900	975	{ Imitation of the Fionia. }	1751	1789
4. The Victory	60	154	41	18	11	29	19	17	4	6	900	975	1754	1789
5. The Greenland	60	139	38	18	4	23	6	18	11	4	687	722	{ Upon the Plan of the Fionia. }	1756	1789

State of the Danish Navy.

TABLE II.

NAMES OF THE VESSELS.	ARTILLERY.			Length from Stem to Stern.	Breadth of the Main Beam.	The Depth of the Hold from the Lower Deck Beam.	Breadth of the Wing Transom.	Draught all Water loaded.		Height of the Bat- tery by the Main Beam.	Displacement of Water without reckoning the barrage.	Displacement of Water.	Names of the Builders.	The Years they were built.	The Years when completely re- paired.	
	CANNON.	Howitzer.	Mortars.					Swivels.	Aft.							Fore.
				Feet. Inches.	Feet. Inches.	Feet. Inches.	Feet. Inches.				Feet. Inches.	Feet. Inches.				
Frigates.																
1. The Pomerania	42			141	57	21	5	21	8 17	3 16	3	706	736 1	Gerner	1785	
2. The Sire	42			144	57	6	18	7	8 16	6 15	3	660	660	Stibolt	1796	
3. The Thoris	42			150	57	6	18	7	8 16	6 15	3	660	660		1796	
4. The Bornholm	36			130	53	12	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1	Gerner	1775	
5. The Kiel	36			130	53	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1		1775	
6. The Alsen	36			130	53	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1		1775	
7. The Saint Thomas	36			130	53	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1		1775	
8. The Cronenburg	36			130	53	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1		1775	
9. The Great Belt	36			130	53	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1		1775	
10. The Fredericsvern	36			128	51	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	447	467 1	Krabbe	1773	
11. The Pearl	34			128	51	6	19	7	8 16	6 15	3	462	462		1776	
12. The Christianiani	30			126	51	17	12	21	6 13	9 13	9	433	438	Stibolt	1790	
13. The Triton	24	6		126	51	4	13	6	11 14	10 13	5	394	422	Krabbe	1766	
14. The Alsen	20		10	117	40	9	12	...	11 14	10 13	6	364	364		1770	
15. The Salsuoe	20		10	115	39	9	12	...	11 14	10 13	5	364	364		1774	
16. The Læro	20		10	115	39	9	13	...	11 14	10 13	5	363	363		1774	
17. The Christiania	20		10	115	39	9	13	...	11 14	10 13	5	363	363	Gerner	1784	
18. The White Eagle	20		10	112	39	10	6	19	4 11	9 12	9	388	408			
Small Vessels.																
1. The Valiant	16	10	2	91	26	12	10	6	9	5	185	205 1	Krabbe	1771
2. The Serinus	16	10	2	91	26	6	12	...	10	6	9	5	185	205 1		1785
3. The Comet	16	10	2	91	26	6	12	...	10	6	9	5	185	205 1		1771
Sloop.																
1. The Janna	12			82	23	10	8	...	9	8	9	4	95	95 1	Gerner	1773
2. The Atro	12			88	21	10	12	1	9	9	9	3	112 1	112 1		1785
Cutter.																
1. The Defence	16			Built in England	...	1790	
2. The Flying Fish	16			Upon the sloopplan	...	1789	
3. The Spy	8			58	6 18	8	3	...	8	51 1	51 1	Gerner	1789
Yacht.																
1. The Eagle	21			80	20 1	6	6	13	6	2	6	8	7 1	81 1	Gerner	1776
2. The Honorable	From	...	1776	
3. The Fortune	8			England.	...	1781	
Brigantine.																
1. The Postilion	...			61	19 1	7	7	9	7	...	72 1	O'Gade	...	
Gunboats.																
1. The Dragon	18			122	...	31	5	10	11	10	Built at Genoa.	...	1786	
Galley (de Noorum).																
1. The Mars	...		1	40	11 1	19	4	10	6	4	Krabbe	1761		
2. The Fredenborg	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1761		
3. The Fredensborg	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1765		
4. The Fredericsvern	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...	Krabbe	1765		
5. The Schen	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1765		
6. The Arendal	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1766		
7. The Krageroe	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1768		
8. The Fredericstads	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1768		
9. The Tonsberg	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1769		
10. The Bragmors	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1769		
11. The Flokkeroe	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1769		
12. The Laurvig	...		12	32	9 1	16	3	5	3	...		1769		

State of the Danish Navy.

TABLE III.

NAMES OF THE VESSELS.	ARTILLERY.			Oars.	Length.		Breadth.		Draught of Water, loaded.				Names of the Builders.	The Years they were built.	
	CANNON.	Howitzers.	Mortars.		Feet.	Inches.	Feet.	Inches.	Aft.		Fore.				
									Feet.	Inches.	Feet.	Inches.			
Vessels upon a new Construction, with two Masts, to serve as T-boats along the Coasts.															
1. The Odensee	2	8	...	32	64	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	Striboldt	1786	
2. The Arendal	2	8	...	32	64	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1786	
3. The Viborg	2	8	...	32	64	...	17	...	5	3	1	9	1786	
4. The Lang Sound	2	8	...	32	61	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
5. The Aalborg	2	8	...	32	64	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
6. The Nycköping	2	8	...	32	64	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
7. The Christian Sound	2	8	...	32	61	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
8. The Stege	2	8	...	32	61	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
9. The Helsingør	2	8	...	32	61	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
10. The Næstved	2	8	...	32	61	...	17	...	5	3	4	9	1787	
Shoebuske															
1. The Castor	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	Krabbe	1774	
2. "	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	1775	
3. "	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	1775	
4. "	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	1775	
5. "	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	1775	
6. "	8	20	51	...	11	6	3	8	2	9	1775	
Double Shallops, (in Norway)															
Six of the same kind	6	16	45	...	9	...	2	6	2	3	Krabbe	1776	
Hull, (in Norway.)															
1. "	6	
Gallot (in Norway.)															
1. "	6	
Vessels with three Masts, a kind of Frigate for defending the Road, and transporting Horses.															
1. The Aggerhus	24	122	...	33	...	6	3	6	...	Gerner	1786	
2. The Reudsborg	24	122	...	33	...	6	3	6	1786	
3. The Nyborg	24	122	...	33	...	6	3	6	1786	
Vessels constructed in such a Manner that they cannot be sunk (with three Masts, like Frigates).															
1. "	14	8	3	...	140	...	36	...	8	3	8	...	Striboldt	1787	
Armed Frigates, (there are two in Norway.)															
Five of the same kind	18	
Floating Batteries, some not mounted; Number unknown.															
1. "	30	
2. "	30	
3. "	30	...	1	
4. "	30	...	1	
Luggers.															
1. The Lark	21	From England.	
Sloops.															
1. The Elean	12	4	84	...	21	...	5	...	7	2	Striboldt.	1789	
2. The Sea Serpent	12	4	84	...	21	...	5	...	7	2	1790	
3. The Mackerel	8	4	60	...	18	...	7	6	6	6	1790	
4. The Malart	8	4	60	...	18	...	7	6	6	6	1790	

State of the Danish Navy.

TABLE IV.

NUMBER OF MEN ON BOARD THE DANISH VESSELS.

There are three different crews, which are as follow, for ships of all sizes. It will appear, likewise, that seventy-four and seventy gun men of war are again divided into two classes.

A ninety-gun ship contains either 849, 727, or 562 men.			
An eighty-gun	.	.	818, 702, — 537 ditto.
A seventy-four gun	.	.	740, 641, — 486 ditto.
A seventy-four gun	.	.	707, 608, — 455 ditto.
A seventy gun	.	.	679, 585, — 437 ditto.
A seventy gun	.	.	625, 529, — 410 ditto.
A sixty-four gun	.	.	583, 495, — 383 ditto.
A sixty gun	.	.	559, 476, — 367 ditto.
A fifty gun	.	.	463, 339, — 298 ditto.
A forty-two gun	.	.	389, 344, — 251 ditto.
A thirty-six gun	.	.	274, 258, — 182 ditto.
A thirty-four gun	.	.	265, 231, — 176 ditto.
A twenty-four gun	.	.	180, 166, — 121 ditto.
A twenty gun	.	.	173, 158, — 114 ditto.
A twenty gun	.	.	136, 125, — 95 ditto.
An eighteen gun	.	.	121, 110, — 78 ditto.
A twelve gun	.	.	64, 56, — 44 ditto.
A twelve gun	.	.	58, 56, — 38 ditto.
An eight gun	.	.	43, 42, — 28 ditto.

Bomb-vessels of sixteen guns, 127 men, which is about $\frac{2}{7}$ sailors to $\frac{1}{7}$ soldiers.

A Note upon the Expence of building a Danish Man of War of Seventy Guns.

In 1770 a seventy-gun ship cost the king as follows :

	Rix-dollars.
Oak timber for the building, masts, and other kind of wood	37,000
Nails of different sorts	1,600
Iron pegs and circles	5,600
Coals at thirteen rix-dollars the last	550
Carpenters', joiners', smiths', sawyers', carvers' and coopers' work	15,000
Copper plates, lead, lime, brick and soot	1,200
Hemp for the ropes	8,800
Pitch and tar	250
Rope-makers' work, and others employed for the rigging	2,400
Sail-cloth at two m. an ell	2,800
Making the sails	550
Working the anchors	1,200
Two hundred and seventy-two quintals of iron for the anchors, at 3 rix-dollars 12 sk. per quintal	850
Painters' work, including oil and colors	400
Every thing relating to the ordnance, except cannon, powder and ball	2,000
Furniture for the cabins, kitchen, flags, &c.	5,000
	<hr/>
	85,200

A man of war of the same size costs more at present, owing either to the materials being dearer, or to the vessels being now made thicker, taller, and with larger sails.

N.B. In 1692 the navy and sea forces of Denmark were as follow, viz.

	Guns.		Men.
One man of war mounting	100	and shipped with	650
Four ditto . . .	84	ditto . . .	600
Two ditto . . .	82	ditto . . .	550
Two ditto . . .	76	ditto . . .	510
Two ditto . . .	70	ditto . . .	490
One ditto . . .	68	ditto . . .	480
Two ditto . . .	66	ditto . . .	470
One ditto . . .	64	ditto . . .	430
Four ditto . . .	56	ditto . . .	390
One ditto . . .	48	ditto . . .	350
One ditto . . .	42	ditto . . .	300

Twenty-one men of war 2,370 Guns, . 10,810 Men;
besides eight small ships and snows.

Ships draw more water, by five or six feet, at the stern than at the head.

A ship of the line, of seventy-two guns, cost building one hundred and eighty-six thousand six-dollars in 1782; one of sixty guns, one hundred and fifty thousand, and a frigate of thirty-six guns, seventy-six thousand six-dollars.

CHAP. VIII.

Royal Navy, East-India Company, Commerce, Custom-Houses.

THE royal navy is very considerable, as may be seen by the adjoining table, which is extremely exact in every part: it is also perfectly well kept up, and the whole establishment deserves being examined in the most particular manner*.

The following is the exact State of the Fleet in the beginning of 1801 :

SHIPS OF THE LINE.

Names.	When built.	When refitted.	Guns.
1. The Superb	1768 . .	1783 . .	80 .
2. The Neptune	1789 . .	— . .	80 .
3. The Waldemar	1797 . .	— . .	80 .
4. The Denmark	1794 . .	— . .	74 .
5. The Norway	1800 . .	— . .	74 .
6. The Princess Mary	1791 . .	— . .	74 .
7. The Buckler	1792 . .	— . .	74 .
8. The Three Crowns	1789 . .	— . .	74 .
9. The Odin	1788 . .	— . .	74 .
10. The Zealand	1787 . .	— . .	74 .
11. The Fuen	1787 . .	— . .	74 .
12. The Polar Star	1785 . .	— . .	74 .
13. The Crown Prince Frederick	1784 . .	— . .	74 .

SHIPS OF THE LINE.

Names.	When built.	When refitted.	Guns.
14. The Hereditary Prince Frederick	1782	—	74
15. The Princess Sophia, Fr.	1775	—	74
16. The Justice	1777	—	70
17. The Ceresund	1766	1779	70
18. The Victorious	1795	—	64
19. The Princess Louisa Aug.	1783	—	64
20. The Ditmarsen	1780	—	64
21. The Holstein	1772	—	60
22. The Princess Wilhelmina Caroline	1764	—	60

OLD UNMASTED SHIPS.

					Reduced to
1. Christian VII. lately named the } Touchstone	1767	1781	90	58	
2. The Jutland	1760	1773	70	6	
3. The Elephant	1769	1780	70	—	
4. The Indigenous	1786	—	64	—	
5. The Dannebrog	1772	—	64	60	
6. The Mars	1784	—	64	—	
7. The Wagric	1773	—	60	50	

FRIGATES.

1. The Iris	1795	—	40
2. The Freya	1793	—	40
3. The Thetis	1790	—	40
4. The Siren	1789	—	40
5. The St. Thomas	1779	—	36
6. The Frederica	1783	—	36
7. The Galeb	1790	—	36
8. The Svanen	1790	—	24
9. The Fredericator	1800	—	24
10. The Fide	1800	—	24

FRIGATES.

Names.	When rebuilt.	When refitted.	Guns.
11. The Valiant . . .	1771 . .	— . .	16
12. The Resolution . . .	1771 . .	— . .	16
13. The Serpent, Xebeck . .	1771 . .	— . .	20
14. The Defence, cutter . .	1786 . .	— . .	20
15. The Flying-fish cutter . .	1789 . .	— . .	18
16. The Cronburg, an old unmasted frigate	1781 . .	— . .	26

BRIGS.

1. The Nedelven. . .	1792 . .	— . .	18
2. The Laugen . . .	1791 . .	— . .	—
3. The Sarpen . . .	1791 . .	— . .	—
4. The Glommen . . .	1791 . .	— . .	—

GUN-BOATS.

1. The Odensee . . .	1786 . .	— . .	4
2. The Wiberg . . .	1786 . .	— . .	—
3. The Arendal . . .	1786 . .	— . .	—
4. The Nykiøbing . . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
5. The Christiansand . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
6. The Aulburg . . .	1787 . .	— . .	4
7. The Langeland . . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
8. The Steege . . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
9. The Naschkou . . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
10. The Flensburg . . .	1787 . .	— . .	—
11. The Stavørn . . .	1791 . .	— . .	—
12. The Fredericsort . .	1793 . .	— . .	—
13. The Wardenhus . . .	1792 . .	— . .	—

PRAMES.

The Aggershuus . . .	1786 . .	— . .	20
The Rendsburg . . .	1786 . .	— . .	—
The Nyburg . . .	1786 . .	— . .	—

With several other prames, numerous small armed boats, and the life, or water-proof frigate, of twenty-six guns, called the Relief, and built in 1787. They were employed

The *holm*, or the navy arsenal, is very handsome and complete, and the whole takes up but a small space of ground; though, except the cannon foundery, it contains every thing necessary, such as a forge for the anchors, workshops for sculptors, coopers, and carpenters, &c. with storehouses of every description. The workmen are divided into three classes, and are paid four, six, and eight skellings; there are also some who are paid by the job.—There is a fire-engine at the anchor forge, the effect of which is very well understood: it works three bellows, the large hammer, and a double cylinder for making the circles. This forge employs seventeen furnaces, large and small. The rope-yard is more than a thousand feet long; and every vessel has a separate storehouse for ropes, sails, rigging, &c., the whole in very good condition. The iron comes from Norway; the hemp from Riga; the wood from Pomerania; and the cloth from Russia, though some indeed is from Holland. A mark is given to each storehouse, and a rix-dollar to the master of the boat who ferries across the harbour which separates the old and new holms. There are six hundred men employed in the forges, and two thousand, in all, in the other workshops. Permission must be obtained from the admiral to visit this arsenal.

In 1801, in building a ninety-gun ship, a seventy-four, two forty-gun frigates, and four from twenty-four to forty-eight; but since the affair of the 2d of April, 1801, the Danish fleet is much diminished, having lost in that celebrated engagement the *Touchstone*, the *Wagrie*, the *Jutland*, the *Indigenous*, the *Zealand*, the *Cronenburg* frigate, with several prizes. The *Dannebrog* caught fire, and was blown up; the *Holstein* was taken to England, and has since been refitted.

The present state of the Danish navy, and the considerable stores contained in the arsenal, is perfectly well known since the late expedition of the English to Copenhagen.

Artillery for the Danish Vessels.

<i>A Ninety-gun ship</i> <i>carries</i>	Calibres.				Total.
	36	18	12	6	
Metal cannon	26	26	26	12	90
Spare axle-trees	6	6	6	2	20
Bolts and transoms	29	29	29	13	100
Great quoins	13	13	13	6	45
Small quoins as many as there are cannon					
80 balls each cannon	2,080	2,080	2,800	960	7,200, at
the rate of five balls per cannon.					
10 Cross-bar shot each } cannon	260	260	260	60	840
5 Charges of case-shot, do.	130	130	130	60	450
60 Charges of powder, } each cannon	28,080	14,040	9,360	2,160	53,620 lbs.
Fine gunpowder					1,000 lbs.

<i>Seventy-gun ships :</i>	Calibres.			Total.
	36	18	8	
Metal cannon	26	26	18	70
Spare axle-trees	6	6	4	16
Bolts and transoms	30	30	20	80
Fine gunpowder				800 lbs.
A carriage to each cannon, and a spare truck to each carriage.				

In this calculation the charge of powder is half the weight of

the ball; but according to the ordinance of 1770, it is fixed to be in the following proportion :

	lbs.
A thirty-six pounder . . .	14
A twenty-four ditto . . .	10
An eighteen ditto . . .	7½
A twelve ditto . . .	5
An eight ditto . . .	3
A six ditto . . .	2½
A four ditto . . .	1½

This is still too much powder; and it stands the king in eighteen rix-dollars a quintal.

	Calibres.			Total.
	24	12	8	
<i>Sixty-gun ships :</i>				
Iron cannon . . .	24	24	12	60
Spare axle-trees . . .	6	6	2	14
Bolts and transoms . . .	27	27	14	68
Fine gunpowder . . .				600 lbs.

	18	12	6	
<i>Fifty-gun ships :</i>				
Iron cannon . . .	22	22	6	50
Spare axle-trees . . .	6	6	2	14
Bolts and transoms . . .	25	24	7	56
Fine gunpowder . . .				500 lbs.

	Calibres.		Total.
	12	8	
<i>Forty-gun frigates :</i>			
Iron cannon	20	20	40
Spare axle-trees	4	4	6
Supports	23	23	46
60 Balls each cannon	1,200	1,200	2,400
40 Charges of powder	4,800	3,200	8,000
Fine gunpowder			300 lbs.

	12	4	
<i>Thirty-gun frigates :</i>			
Iron cannon	22	8	30
50 Balls each cannon	1,100	400	1,500
40 Charges of powder	5,280	640	5,920
Fine gunpowder			250 lbs.

	8	4	
<i>Twenty-four gun frigates :</i>			
Iron cannon	20	4	24
50 Balls each cannon	1,000	200	1,200
40 Charges of powder	3,200	320	3,520
Fine gunpowder			200 lbs.

			4
<i>Advice-boats with eighteen guns :</i>			
Iron cannon			18
No great quoins.			
40 Balls each cannon			720
30 Charges of powder			1,080
Fine gunpowder			100 lbs

The only ships which have brass cannon are two of ninety guns, and four of seventy guns. The brass cannon are cast at Fredericksmark, and the iron ones at Laurwig in Norway.

The pay of the navy in 1790 was regulated in the following manner*: — An admiral who is president of the admiralty has five thousand rix-dollars. An admiral who acts in no particular department, three thousand rix-dollars. Three vice-admirals, at one thousand eight hundred rix-dollars each. Six commodores, at one thousand six hundred rix-dollars. Eight captain commodores, one thousand one hundred rix-dollars. All captains with companies, eight hundred rix-dollars. Captains without companies, three hundred rix-dollars. Thirty-eight lieutenant-captains, two hundred and fifty rix-dollars, (but those who have any departments have more, sometimes indeed five or six hundred crowns). Thirty-nine first-lieutenants, two hundred rix-dollars. Fifty-seven second lieutenants, one hundred and fifty rix-dollars. Fifty cadets †, the twelve first of whom have one

* In the year 1793, the pay was fixed as follow:—

	Rix-dollars.
An admiral	2,880
Two vice-admirals, each	2,388
Three rear-admirals, each	2,208
Four commodores, each	1,848
Eight captain commodores, each	960
Twenty-eight captains, each	800
Twenty-four captain lieutenants, each	276
Sixty second lieutenants, each	192

The navy officers are generally educated at the cadet's school. Soldiers drawn from different infantry regiments used to mount guard on board the king's ships, but a particular corps was raised for that purpose in 1798, amounting with the officers to one thousand and ninety-nine men, divided into six companies.

† The academy for the cadets belonging to the navy is in one of the houses in Frederic-square. Three sleep in one room; but there are only twenty-four lodged in the house, though it would very well hold fifty. They are not maintained in victuals; and

hundred rix-dollars, and the other thirty-eight, fifty. A hundred and forty-nine cadets who are volunteers without pay. There are four classes of gunners aboard the ships; those in the first have twelve crowns, or rix-dollars, a month; in the second, eight; in the third, six; and in the fourth, five. The three first have a *demi-ration* more than the sailors. There are four pilots to each vessel: the pay of the first is twenty-two crowns a month; of the second, twenty; of the third, eighteen; and of the fourth sixteen. The master's mate, twenty-two rix-dollars; the surgeon, twenty-six rix-dollars; the chaplain, twenty rix-dollars. The sailors are divided into four divisions, each consisting of ten companies. The first is artillery of two hundred men, commanded by the chief of the division, who is a rear-admiral. There are then in all eight hundred men from the corps of artillery; the other nine companies are composed of a hundred men each. The chief of the artillery is always taken from the marines, and never goes on board. There are a great many classes of inferior officers in the artillery, all of whom wear swords. Those who have the best pay are the first gunners and the boatswains, for they have a double ration and five crowns a month. Some of the soldiers are raised to the rank of

they cost the king four rix-dollars a-month... They are divided into classes. There is a fine view of the port from this palace. Since the year 1791, fifty youths have been maintained and educated in this institution at the expence of the state. There are likewise a hundred more, called volunteers, who partake of the same instruction, the principal object of which is the art of navigation, and all other sciences relative to it. They are likewise taught different languages, history, and other agreeable accomplishments; and of late the pupils have been exercised in different manly exercises, and in swimming. Every year they are sent out to cruise twice, for six weeks each time. On entering the navy, the young men may continue their studies under a professor, who is pensioned by government for giving public lectures on hydraulics, hydrostatics, and mechanics. Those who wish to learn the art of ship-building, must apply to the master builder, on whom that branch of instruction devolves.

officers. The sailor's pay is eighteen crowns a-year; they are likewise maintained: and the artillery is upon the same footing. The cabin-boys have four crowns a-year, and those between that situation and the sailors, four marks and a half a month, which make nine crowns a year. The sailors are clothed once in two years; they have likewise stockings, shoes, and a hat every year. The blue cloth for this purpose costs eighty skellings an ell.

The captains till the year 1790 provided every thing on board the king's ships, and took the officers' pay: but at present the plan is changed, and the officers manage for themselves; each taking his turn. And they are generally gainers by this method: for, besides their pay, they are allowed every man a certain quantity of the king's provisions stored on board, and the quota is fixed according to their respective rank. The captain has a separate table; and the other officers generally make an arrangement with the second captain, who finds them in every thing.

Before the reign of Frederick IV., sailors were inrolled either in the Hanse Towns or in Denmark, but this prince adopted a plan similar to the one he fixed upon for the land forces. The inrolling still took place, but the number of national seamen was increased, by the inhabitants of the coasts being formed into classes. This method has since been amended, and there are now two kinds of sailors, of which we will give a description.

All the inhabitants of the districts or maritime towns, who were employed in fishing, were inscribed on the ordinary and extraordinary roll-book, for which purpose the whole of the coast was divided into different circles. The roll-book was drawn up by an officer of the royal navy, with the approbation of the civil power. The sailors thus inscribed may engage themselves on board the national merchantmen, provided they inform the officer, who acts as overseer, of the place whither they are bound. Those belong-

ing to the towns and their circles, may also engage themselves on board foreign yessels, on condition they return in two years, leaving, however, the sum of twenty rix-dollars as a pledge of their fulfilling their engagement. The inhabitants who are not in these classes, do not enjoy the privilege of serving on board merchantmen. That such prescribed order may be properly maintained, all Danish and Norway captains are obliged to produce a list of their crew at the Custom-house, with the names of the different circles to which they belong, and also to prove on their return that they have brought back the sailors to the place from which they carried them. If a sailor, inscribed on the roll-book, fixes himself in a foreign country, he is regarded as a deserter. All seamen of the age of fifty, are changed from the ordinary to the extraordinary roll-book. When the royal navy makes a requisition, sailors are chosen according to the date of their being registered, and to the degree of experience they are supposed to possess; taking care, however, not to make the first choice of fathers of families, or those who have any infirm relations to support by their labor. The sailors inscribed on the roll-books enjoy many advantages and privileges even when unemployed in the service of the state; and the instant they are put in requisition, they receive their pay, which is increased when the service becomes more active. On going out to sea, this pay varies according to their skill, and is from two to five rix-dollars a-month. They have also a share in the prize-money, and their number amounts to thirty thousand. The circles in Denmark are those of Zealand, Laaland, Falster, Funen, Moen, Eastern Jutland, and Western Jutland; and in Norway, Friderichshald, Bragnæs, Christiansand, Stavanger, Bergen, and Drontheim. Schleswig forms a separate district, and Holstein is exempted. The regulations relative to this department have been much amended, especially

since the year 1770, and the smallest particulars have been attended to very strictly. Those circumstances which relate solely to Norway have been taken into consideration, and some dispositions made for that country.

Dock-Yard.*

The wooden dock-yard for repairing ships will only contain one at a time, which however it does very conveniently, of whatsoever size. There is a new pump at the entrance for clearing off the water, which is upon a very good plan: it is worked by eight horses, and empties the basin in twenty-four hours.

The old pump still remains, and is constantly employed for removing the water arising from a spring which is unfortunately under the dock. The new machine works eleven chain-pumps. They are made of iron with round plates, in the middle of which

* The first attempt to construct a bason or dock, where vessels might be refitted more commodiously and at less expence, was made in the reign of Christian V. The work was begun, and was carried on with much celerity, when the water, forcing a passage through, destroyed it, and indeed carried it off entirely. The same plan was again adopted under Christian VI., and succeeded better. A German architect, named Dammreicher, directed the works, and Count Daneschuld was appointed inspector-general. The vessel being introduced into the wet dock, the entrance is shut up by sluices, and the vessel propped up against the wall, where it continues suspended till the water is pumped out of the dock. When the ship is refitted, the sluices are opened, and she is set afloat. Five hundred men are employed to empty the bason, half of whom pump at one time, whilst the other half rest from their labors: this operation requires three days. Gerner, a very able Danish architect, has contrived a very ingenious expedient to lessen both the work and expence, by having constructed, in 1784, the machine described in the text. This bason, without including the above-mentioned machine, cost 229,193 rix-dollars. It has lately been in contemplation to make another bason of the same kind.

is a piece of leather jetting out a little to prevent rubbing. These plates measure about three inches. According as the water decreases, any of these chains may be stopped at pleasure. There is likewise another pump worked by hand. Near the dock is a model in wood, not only of the dock but of the new and old pump. These are extremely well executed.

Though the Danes have always been extremely attentive to commerce, it is only within the last thirty or forty years that it has been really encouraged, and brought to the degree of perfection it is now arrived at, when the Danish flag may be seen in the four quarters of the globe. We will now take a view of the different companies, and give some idea of their operations.

The East-India Company.

The Danes have traded with India for forty years; and the grant which established the present company was given by Christian VI., in 1732. Their funds consist of four thousand eight hundred actions or shares, at five hundred rix-dollars each: these were worth from four hundred and twenty to four hundred and forty in December 1790, and had been worth seven hundred rix-dollars in 1789, and from one thousand six hundred to one thousand eight hundred in 1782. The grant was for forty years; and expiring in 1772, was succeeded by another, bearing date the twenty-third of July 1772, which expired on the eleventh of April 1792*, but was renewed for twenty years on nearly the

* This company obtained a new grant in 1792, for twenty years, nearly upon the same footing as the preceding one. The India trade is become much more free and extended, and ships are allowed to be freighted for India, not only in the Danish but in foreign

same footing as before. This company at the end of 1790 had eleven ships fit for service; viz. The Prince Royal; the Sophia Magdalen; the Louisa Augusta; the Danebrog; the Denmark; the Charlotte Amelia; the King of Denmark; the Castle of Ansburg; the Disco; the Prince of Augustenburg; and the Queen Juliana Maria.

Two ships are annually sent to China, and four, five, indeed sometimes more, to India. It is computed that the yearly sales amount to three, four, or five millions of rix-dollars. Some years they have been still more considerable, when the ships have returned three times from China. The principal advantage of this company, with relation to Denmark, is the opportunity of having tea and other East-India goods at the first hand. Independent of the profits arising to the people concerned, the sailors, and all those employed in this trade, either at home or in China, reap some advantage from the establishment, which has an exclusive privilege for the Chinese trade, which it has maintained hitherto; and that has never been the case with any of the companies formed by private individuals. Tea to the amount of six hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars had been sold in the month of November 1790; and in the same year three cargoes from Bengal were sold for one million five hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars. From 1776 to 1778 the company received thirty-one ships from China, which produced twenty millions eight hundred and ninety-seven thousand rix-dollars; and

ports, by procuring necessary passports at Copenhagen, Tranquebar, or at Fredericksnagor:—The returns, however, must be brought to Copenhagen and sold to the highest bidders in that city. Foreigners may be concerned in these expeditions, provided the principal owner of the vessel be established in the Danish dominions. They may also transport India goods in their own ships to Copenhagen, if they do not interfere with Chinese articles.

twenty-two from Bengal producing twelve millions. There were likewise fifty-five ships belonging to private people, valued at twenty-four millions five hundred thousand rix-dollars. The sum total of the balance of the East-India company, on the thirty-first of March 1790, was nine millions seven hundred forty-eight thousand nine hundred and fifty rix-dollars; but it seldom amounts to so much. Every ship bound for China is obliged to carry merchandise manufactured in Denmark to the value of three thousand rix-dollars; and those for Bengal to the amount of two thousand rix-dollars. This rule is constantly observed. The company were gainers of two millions four hundred thousand rix-dollars from 1759 to 1768, and infinitely more in proportion from 1780 to 1784. The expence of maintaining a China ship is estimated at one hundred thousand rix-dollars: these are generally from four to five hundred lasts burthen (a last is equal to two tun), with between one hundred and thirty and one hundred and fifty men. Some of the China ships are large, carrying from twelve to fifteen hundred tons.*

* The trade of individuals with India is much increased. The account amounted

In 1797, to eleven returns; Three from the Danish Settlements, and the others from Foreign Ports.

In 1798, to thirteen returns; Four from the Danish Settlements, and the rest from Foreign Ports.

In 1799, to thirteen returns; Four from the Danish Settlements, and the rest from Foreign Ports.

These expeditions employ sixty men, whose pay, provisions, and perquisites, amount to thirty thousand rix-dollars.

Tea, rhubarb, and china, are the principal articles imported from China. The settlements acquired in India and other parts of that country, supply the ships with cargoes of linen, silk, sugar, rice, pepper, ginger, cinnamon, indigo, opium, arrack, and saffron. Over and above the money taken to China, the Danes carry metals, brandy, pitch, tar, and other articles to that country; which they expose to sale, not

The Trade with America

has been at a very low ebb ever since the peace of 1783; and all the sugar made in the island of Santa Cruz* does not amount to more than eighteen thousand hogsheads; indeed they only made seven thousand in 1790. Half this quantity is for Copen-

only there, but in all the other parts they frequent for that purpose. Fredericsnager is much the most commercial of any of the Danish settlements. The town bearing that name contains some very considerable manufactories, and corresponds with several Asiatic countries. Foreigners are allowed to join these expeditions from one port to another.

* Cultivation at Santa Cruz is in a very flourishing state. This island is divided into three hundred and forty-five plantations, having each an extent of ground of three thousand feet in length, and two thousand in breadth. One hundred and fifty plantations are dedicated entirely to sugar-canes, and the others to cotton, with a small quantity of coffee. This island yielded one hundred and fifty-six millions eight thousand and nine pounds of sugar, between the years 1778 and 1792, worth nine millions five hundred and fifty-five thousand nine hundred and seventeen rix-dollars. Of this sugar, one hundred and twenty-six millions four hundred and sixty-two thousand nine hundred and seventy-two pounds were sent to Europe, and the remainder sold in America. The following is an estimate of the produce of the whole of the plantations from 1793 to 1796.

Years.	Sugar.	Rum.	Cotton.
1793 . . .	24,887 Hogsheads.	9,993 Hogsheads.	419 Bags
1794 . . .	15,156	7,118	392
1795 . . .	14,204	7,655	235
1796 . . .	18,620	11,240	203

The crops of cotton have of late years been so uncertain, that several pieces of ground, where that tree was formerly cultivated, are now planted with sugar-canes, which they find much more profitable. Ever since the year 1793, cotton from Santa Cruz has been exported into Foreign ports, on paying a duty of seven and a half per cent.

Cocou-nuts, and several other fruits, amongst which is a root something like a potatoe, are very abundant in Santa Cruz. In the northern part of the island they pay great attention to breeding cattle; and, in the interior, they carry on a very lucrative trade. The roads are extremely fine, and there are two towns, Christianstødt, containing six hundred and sixty-four houses; and Fredericstødt, containing one hundred and ninety.

hagen; one quarter is sent to North America: and the rest to Holland. This island* also furnishes from six to eight hundred hogsheads of rum. Saint Thomas scarcely yields the sixth part of these articles, with the addition of some bales of cotton. Saint John produces a little coffee, one thousand five hundred hogsheads of sugar, and two hundred of rum. In the whole island of Santa Cruz there are not more than two or three planters of easy fortune, and free from debt. Whilst the war lasted, indeed, many Dutch, English, and French merchants were established in this place; but they all quitted it at the peace. The plantations formerly mortgaged to the Dutch are now mortgaged to government for the sum of one million five hundred rix-dollars. There are not more than twenty vessels employed in the whole trade of all these different islands.†

* Saint Thomas has contained of late near forty plantations of sugar-canes, and thirty-four for cotton and other articles. Saint John, twenty-two sugar plantations, and forty cotton, &c. The extent of these plantations are greater than at Santa Cruz. The inhabitants find the exertions they make in breeding cattle a very lucrative speculation.

† The profits made in these islands on an average, are as follow:—

Islands.	Sugar.	Rum.	Cotton.
Santa Cruz . .	18,714 Hogsheads.	83,816 Hogsheads.	12,600 Bags.
Saint Thomas .	1,219	446	5,800
Saint John . .	820	309	3,500
	<hr/> 20,709	<hr/> 84,573	<hr/> 21,900

The whole of the settlements in Santa Cruz may be estimated at twenty-five millions and a half of rix-dollars. The duties levied on the trade of the island, yielded

In 1793	186,108 Rix-dollars.	77 Skellings.
1794	164,467	50
1795	140,627	37
1796	191,431	20

The other revenues belonging to Santa Cruz, amounting nearly to a hundred thousand rix-dollars, are entirely employed in necessary expences, which indeed is the case at

The Commerce to the Coast of Africa

did not succeed by itself; but being now joined to the Baltic Company, it answers extremely well. A vessel generally stays more than a year on the coast of Africa before the cargo is complete. When the year proves favorable, the Danes send off from two thousand to two thousand five hundred slaves to their own islands and to Saint Domingo, with which they are still at liberty to carry on this trade. A negro, who costs one hun-

Saint Thomas's and Saint John's. It has been necessary to relieve the planters several times. They had contracted a debt with Holland amounting to four millions of rix-dollars, which the king took upon himself and paid the interest, on condition that he should receive the principal in twenty-eight years. He also lent the planters a million and a half some time ago, and has lately advanced them different sums. These various articles are to be placed to account, together with the original purchases and first settlements, in order to make an exact valuation of the profits arising to the state from the islands. The cargoes sent to these islands consist of commodities of all kinds; iron, brass, Danish, Foreign and Indian merchandise. The returns are made in sugar, rum, and cotton. Indigo, tobacco, wood for joiners' work, and coffee, are procured by other connexions. Though Santa Cruz, Saint Thomas, and Saint John, are supplied with all necessary articles of consumption by the mother country, they are allowed to purchase likewise from Foreign colonies, provided they pay with the produce of their own soil.

The number of vessels employed in this trade with the islands, and with other American ports, varies according to circumstances. They consisted

In 1754	of	7
1761	52
1781	127
1782	246
1783	91
1793	from 50 to 60
1797	86
1798	75

These vessels are of eighty to one hundred and twenty tun, and the crew consists of from sixteen to twenty men.

dred and forty rix-dollars in Africa is sold for three hundred in the islands. There are four markets for this purpose in Guinea, viz. Fridemburg, Christiansburg, Konistein, and Prinzestein. The Danish cargoes consist of muskets, pistols, gunpowder, brandy, tobacco, and coarse cloth called *guineas*. The blacks will buy no muskets but what are manufactured at Solingen; and it is impossible to deceive them, so perfectly are they skilled in this merchandise:—they indeed frequently refuse to purchase those made by M. Schimmelmänn (of whom we have before spoken), though they are extremely well imitated, and in fact equally good. The trade for elephants' teeth and other trifles amounts to ten thousand rix-dollars; and only six ships are employed in the whole traffic to the coast of Africa.*

* The two following Tables will give a just idea of the Negro Trade.

Negroes Exported from AFRICA.	Negroes transported in Danish Vessels to the Danish Islands in America.	Ships Employed in this Trade.
1778 1,197	908	3
1779 1,021	979	3
1780 475	438	1
1781 2,408	1,329	5
1782 1,831	192	5
1783 1,999	629	7
1784 2,428	305	8
1785 2,087	115	8
1786 1,227	406	3
1787 993	492	4
1788 733	249	2
1789 714	287	2
17,113	6,229	50

The above statement proves that this trade flourished most from 1781 to 1785 during the last years of, and immediately after the American War. In common year

The Trade to the Baltic and the Mediterranean

are neither of them of much consequence: the first is very trifling, and can never be otherwise till there shall be a free port either at Copenhagen or Elsineur, which are the best in Denmark upon the Baltic:—the latter must necessarily be disadvantageous, from the different articles they are obliged to procure from France and Spain. The Danish flag is however in perfect safety in the Mediterranean, on account of the alliance government has made with Barbary, and the frequent presents sent to that country.

this object is much less important. On reckoning the expences of provisions which are brought in by the settlements on the coast, the low price the negroes fetch in the islands, and the mortality which reigns amongst them, and the sailors during the voyage, the profits will be found very trifling. The government named a committee in 1791, to examine into every particular relative to this commerce; and the following year a very prudent edict was issued, by which it was forbidden to be carried on during ten years, that is to say, till 1803: In this interval the planters were allowed to send for male and female negroes in sufficient numbers to encourage matrimony; these were to be transported in Danish or Foreign vessels. All domestic negroes more than were absolutely necessary were taxed, and the product given as a reward to those planters, who had contributed most to the increase of marriages amongst the blacks. These marriages were protected by the laws, and the children were not to be taken from their parents; schools were to be appointed in every district of the islands for their instruction, and no negroes were suffered to be exported to foreign colonies. The Danes boast of being the first people who have attended to a reform so consistent with the sacred rights of humanity.

THE FOLLOWING IS A TABLE OF THIS COMMERCE
IN THE YEAR 1798.

Vessels gone out for the Ports of the Mediterranean.				Vessels returned from the Ports of the Mediterranean.			
Whence they sailed.	Number and Burden.	Whither destined.	Number and Burden.	Whence they sailed.	Whither destined.	Number and Burden.	Number and Burden.
	Vessels. Tuns.		Vessels. Tuns.			Vessels. Tuns.	Vessels. Tuns.
Copenhagen	17 3,116	Malaga	5 674	Malaga		8 899	25 1,953
Flensburg	1 353	Barcelona	44 4,466	Figueira		37 74	5 113
Randers	7 456	Algeiras	7 1,185	Alicant		3 964	1 74
Altona	4 699	Marseilles	12 1,534	Bandol		1 146	1 38
Gluckstadt	1 145	Toulon	1 106	Barcelona		13 1,486	1 70
Tenningen	1 230	Messina	5 461	Torre-Vecija		1 154	8 1,007
Christiania	1 157	Naples	10 960	Salon		2 163	2 319
Killestad	1 163	Leghorn	17 1,997	Marseilles		1 38	1 80
Stavanger	1 60	Genoa	10 958	Cette		3 450	1 214
Molde	1 46	Venice	6 788	St. Michel		1 84	4 374
Christiansand	8 1,129	Ancona	4 684	Yvica		5 779	2 214
Arendal	2 300	Trieste	5 710	Messina		6 514	2 122
Esternier	1 164			Palermo		1 74	1 966
Kagerø	1 172			Cagliari		2 400	2 903
Bergen	44 2,060			Ventimiglia		1 50	
Christiansand	10 743			Leghorn		1 255	
Drontheim	18 1,804			Trieste		2 418	
Finnmarken	4 440						
Iceland	3 272						
	186 14,515					55 6,349	55 5,207

These vessels are laden with wood and fish from Norway, meat and butter from Holstein, and iron from Sweden. In exchange they bring home wine, brandy, fruit, oil, and salt. But it is not in this commerce the Danes reap the greatest advantage from their navigation in the Mediterranean, their profit arising from letting out their vessels, which are in great request, particularly in the Italian ports, because the Danish flag is almost always respected by the Barbary corsairs, with whose government the Danes usually contrive to be at peace; this peace, however, is attended by great expence, which must be deducted from the general profit.

Many efforts have been made to establish a correspondence with the Levant; but this branch has never yet been very extensive, and the vessels which frequent those seas, gain nothing except the freight and coasting duties.

The Home Trade.

Norway is a gainer in the balance of commerce;* but Iceland is a miserable country, though there are twenty or thirty

* The two most important branches of the Norway trade are as follow.

Wood Exported from Norway into Foreign Countries in 1797.

Cargoes.	Lasts.	Place of Destination.
156	14,662	} Batavian Republic, heretofore the Belgic provinces.
15	720½	
16	777	Calais and Dunkirk.
55	3,080½	French Sea-ports.
2	248½	Marseilles.
1	72	Spain.
2	109	Portugal.
63	2,673	Great-Britain.
<hr/> 310	<hr/> 92,345	

vessels of from fifty to eighty lasts employed in the trade of that island. The government, in order to favor the country as much as possible, has granted great privileges to those who could be induced to settle there.

Wood Exported in 1799.

Cargoes.	Lasts.	Place of Destination.
1	84	Naples.
11	608	Spain.
71	3,551	France.
20	2,167	{ Batavian Republic, heretofore the Belgic Provinces.
2	127½	
100	7,717	Embsen and other German Ports.
889	46,553	England.
303	9,104	Scotland
172	16,565	Ireland.
<hr/> 1,169	<hr/> 86,374½	

These Tables not only prove the importance of this branch of commerce, but also the manner in which it has been affected by the war. The cargoes consist of planks, masts, beams, laths, and rafters. The greatest part went from Christiania, Bragnoes, Stromsol, and Tangen, all assigned under the general name of *Drammen*, and subject to one and the same toll.

Fish Exported from Norway towards the Year, 1790.

	Rix-dollars.
Bergen . . .	958,000
Christiansund . . .	78,000
Drontheim . . .	75,000
Molde . . .	22,000
Stavanger . . .	10,000
Finmarken . . .	40,000
Southern Division . . .	20,000
	<hr/> 1,203,000

The principle articles exported from Iceland, are, dried and salted fish, train-oil, salted meat, tallow, skins, feathers, particularly cider down, refined sulphur, raw-wool, worsted-stockings, gloves, and under waistcoats; these amount annually to

Fish Exported in 1799.

Cargoes.	Lasts.	Destination.
4	113½	Batavian Republic.
41	913½	Embsen.
3	129½	Hamburgh.
18	925½	Mediterranean.
41	1,486	Several Spanish Ports.
21	447½	England.
31	912	France.
6	348	Naples.
1	35	Madeira.
4	193½	Messina.
3	277	Bremen.
6	490	Trieste.
8	496½	Venice.
5	365½	Leghorn.
1	22½	Bruges.
1	47	Genoa.
1	10	Saint Ubes.
10	226½	Königsberg.
9	203	Stettin.
1	24½	Colberg.
9	165	Lubeck.
14	513½	Rostock.
5	205	Petersburg.
8	266½	Sweden.
1	30½	Stralsund.
1	37½	Dantzic.
1	50	Elbingen.
2	16½	Baltic.
<hr/> 261	<hr/> 8,958½	

two hundred thousand rix-dollars. Articles imported cost one hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars; and consist in flour, oatmeal, beer, brandy, stuffs, linen-cloths, hats, coffee, tea, spices, salt, iron, tin and copper utensils, paper, and soap. The Table of Cargoes sent from Copenhagen between the years of 1764 and 1784, was to the amount of two millions five hundred and sixty thousand rix-dollars; and that of the returns four millions six hundred and sixty-five thousand rix-dollars; so that when the freighting and insuring ships with other expences, annexed to that mode of commerce, was deducted, a profit remained of one million. The present mode will be more advantageous to the islanders, for ever since the year 1787, Bergen, Christiansand, Drontheim, Fehrsund, Altona, and other places have taken a part in the commerce of that island, by which means the profits are no longer exclusively for the capital. The following is a statement of the expeditions from 1787 to 1791:—

Copenhagen.		Bergen, Christiansand, Drontheim, Altona, &c.	
	Tun.		Tun.
1787 . .	35 Vessels of 3,254	6 Vessels of .	469
1788 . .	27 . . . 2,084	28	1,919
1789 . .	32 . . . 2,400	35	2,781
1790 . .	38 . . . 2,998	27	1,934
1791 . .	35 . . . 2,688	25	1,819

Though the Trade with England is not very important to Denmark and the dutchies, it is of great consequence to Norway; the English buying from that country not only dried fish, but a considerable quantity of timber. They in return sell their coals, and several articles from their different manufactories very advantageously, yet still the balance is not in their favor, and it has been proved by the Custom-house receipt books, from the year 1698 to 1754, that the Danish dominions have generally gained an

The islands of Ferroe yield nothing but a little wool, eider down, fish, and salt meat. Regberg, counsellor of the conference, once established a commercial house in those parts, and it was perfectly well situated for carrying on a smuggling trade for tea and brandy with England and Scotland:—indeed there was one year when the speculator made a profit of more than thirty thousand rix-dollars. This house no longer exists.

Fisheries.

Ten or twelve vessels go annually to Greenland for the whale fishery. The company is at the king's expence, and generally bring home from six to eight thousand tuns of blubber; also seals, which, with a few bears'-skins, never amount to two hundred thousand crowns. This many writers have declared to be the case. Altona and Gluckstadt likewise send out some vessels; but those from Hamburgh entirely overpower them.

The Number of Danish Vessels

is computed at three thousand eight hundred or four thousand; one thousand or eleven hundred of which belong to Zea-

annual sum of one hundred and twenty thousand rix-dollars from England. According to a Table of Commerce, presented to Parliament in 1796, it appeared that between the years 1792 and 1794, three hundred and forty-three vessels, of one hundred and forty-four thousand four hundred and thirty-six tun, hoisting Danish colors, had entered the port of London; and from 1795 to 1798, two hundred and forty-six ditto, of one hundred and thirty-two thousand nine hundred and eighteen tun. These vessels were laden with timber, fish, grain, and iron. Several English vessels also go annually to Norway.

land; from fourteen to fifteen hundred to Norway; from seven hundred and fifty to eight hundred to Holstein and Sleswig; and from five hundred and fifty to six hundred to Jutland and the other islands.* Twelve hundred of this number carry ten lasts; one

* The following table is a statement of the number of vessels in 1799, of more than ten lasts burthen. (A last is two tun.) It also specifies the crew of the above-mentioned vessels.

DENMARK.

	Vessels.	Lasts.	Crews.
Copenhagen	220	24,000	4,417
East India Company . . .	8	2,562	
Grand Bailiwick of Zealand . .	52	2,263	175
Grand Bailiwick of	57	1,261	109
Laaland and Falster	14	230	20
Grand Bailiwick of Aalborg . .	51	1,023	214
_____ of Wiberg	4	57	12
_____ of Aarhus	95	2,015	349
_____ of Ribe	82	2,489	1,026
	<u>683</u>	<u>35,900</u>	<u>6,342</u>

NORWAY.

Grand Bailiwick of Christiania . .	283	22,627½	2,510
_____ of Christiansand . .	348	16,794½	2,310
_____ of Bergen	53	6,906	1,035
_____ of Drontheim	63	3,142½	481
	<u>747</u>	<u>49,470½</u>	<u>6,336</u>

DUTCHIES.

Schleswig	463	20,817½	2788
Holstein	290	19,421½	3,434
Total	<u>2,183</u>	<u>124,969½</u>	<u>18,900</u>

Most of the above vessels were built in the Danish dominions. Those purchased from other countries, cannot be employed without paying a duty on each Last of ten per cent.

thousand, from ten to twenty; six hundred from twenty to thirty; three hundred, from thirty to forty; two hundred, from forty to fifty; two hundred and fifty, from fifty to a hundred; two hundred, from a hundred to a hundred and fifty; two hundred, from a hundred and fifty to two hundred; and fifty, from three to four hundred. Of the thousand or eleven hundred vessels said to belong to the island of Zealand, the city of Copenhagen possesses five hundred; besides one hundred more, the property of different companies. The Danish merchantmen in 1748 did not exceed seventeen or eighteen hundred.*

Vessels from ten to eighty tons have only from three to six men; those between eighty and a hundred have seven or eight; and those from a hundred to a hundred and fifty, nine or ten. One more man is added to the vessels cruising in the environs, if they carry ten or fifteen tons more than the others, and so on in proportion to the number of tons. One fourth of the usual number of men is superadded for long voyages. The sailors belonging to merchantmen are generally engaged at four or five rix-dollars a month.

Three thousand nine hundred and seventy vessels, carrying ninety-five thousand seven hundred and eighty-eight lasts, entered the port of Copenhagen in 1787;† and there went out of

* The trade of Denmark has increased considerably from the almost continual wars between England and France, during which the Danish flag has been generally respected. The freighting commerce has, for a few years past, been particularly profitable, and has extended even to Asia and America. Passports have been granted to the inhabitants which enable them to carry on this trade, provided the returns enter into Foreign Ports, on this side the Cape of Good Hope. Fifty-five Danish vessels of, in all, ten thousand and sixty-four tons, have been freighted by foreigners for different parts of America from the first of January 1796, till the last of June in the same year.

† Since regulations have taken place at the Custom-houses, which facilitate the

the same port three thousand eight hundred and sixty-six, carrying ninety-six thousand one hundred and ninety lasts. When ever there is a maritime war, and Denmark remains neuter, the number of vessels which enter this port amount to five thousand. In 1787, the consumption of French wines in Copenhagen was reckoned at between fifty and sixty thousand barrels; and four hundred of brandy. From 1787 to 1791, including the last year, the usual annual consumption was four thousand six hundred barrels. Thirty thousand five hundred and twenty-eight barrels were imported, of which twenty-three thousand two hundred and eight were for Copenhagen; and seven thousand three hundred and twenty passed by a warrant from the Custom-house. Denmark imports wine, brandy, fruit, oil, and Martinico coffee, from France; and exports grain, planks, iron, liquid pitch, pitch and tar, and salt-fish:—the country usually gains by this coasting-trade.

The balance of commerce for Denmark only, in 1789, was about four millions three hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars for articles imported; and for those exported, four millions six hundred thousand rix-dollars.

The freight was very advantageous during the war; so much so, indeed, that a vessel laden with eight hundred hogsheads

transit, merchants have endeavoured to realise the plan of a staple. During the year 1798, there arrived at Copenhagen,

2,066	Vessels from different European Ports.
2,490	— from Danish Ports.
414	— from Norway Ports.
912	— from the Dutchies.
92	— from the East and West Indies.

In all . . . 5,974

of sugar gained thirty thousand rix-dollars;—for five skellings freight was at that time frequently paid for each pound of sugar; and now it scarcely amounts to one. In the last war there were above four thousand freighted vessels with Danish colors.

The burthens of all the merchantmen, from thirty to two hundred and fifty lasts, make two hundred and twenty-seven thousand lasts; thirty thousand of which are sent to the Mediterranean, ninety thousand to the Atlantic, the Channel, &c., and the rest to the North Sea, the Baltic, and to India.

Custom-Houses.

The following notes are taken from memoirs published the 17th of March 1789, on the fraudulent trade carried on at the custom-houses in Denmark and Norway, and the manner in which the affairs are regulated. The situation of this kingdom, and it's extensive coasts, which are accessible on every side, must ever facilitate the practice of smuggling. The coast of Norway alone is three hundred geographical miles in length; and when we reflect upon the heavy duties laid upon most foreign merchandise; the prevailing taste for luxury; the trifling salaries allowed the people employed at the custom-houses; the mildness of the laws against smugglers, which never inflict any corporeal punishment, unless the offender is unable to pay the penalty laid upon him; and the enormous price for workmanship of every kind, which makes it impossible for manufactories to succeed; we cannot be surprised that this trade should flourish. There are indeed at every sixth mile three guards on horse-back; but they are only placed at suspicious points, and are not

subject to have their conduct regularly examined. These men are paid from fifty to eighty, and even sometimes a hundred, rix-dollars per annum; and the overseers receive from two hundred to two hundred and fifty, and four hundred rix-dollars. The government furnishes the guards with horses and boats in case of necessity; it also allows them houses in the most desert parts of the country, which are so situated as to have an extensive view of every thing that passes; and added to these a small portion of land, which devolves to their successors. The people employed in this business are petty cavalry officers of known and approved characters. All seised goods, under one hundred rix-dollars, belong to those who made the seizure; but every thing of a greater value is divided betwixt them and the comptrollers of the customs, except indeed a very small part kept for the poor's hospital. No house can be searched without an order from the bailiff or judge of the place; and those who denounce any particular house, are obliged to deposit a certain sum, which they forfeit if nothing is found against the parties accused: they are likewise condemned to pay a penalty.

likewise upon Arrol: founded upon the Geographical and Geometrical Calculations found in the Geographical Maps published by the Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen: arranged and compiled by Niels Monile.

NAMES OF THE PROVINCE AND THE BAILLIWICK.	I. Land by square Geogra- phical Miles.	II Arable Land per Tun.	III. Wood Land per Tun.	IV. Marshy Land per Tun.	V. Land taken up by Lakes per Tun.	VI. Value of Arable Land.	VII. Total Land of Fourteen thousand square Rix per Tun.	VIII. Crop of Wheat per annum.	IX. Annual Consumption of Corn.	X. The number of Tuns of Wheat which remain af- ter an abatement made of 1 for the Cattle.	XI. General state of Population.
Zealand and Moen in general	181	5,770	1,018,284	188,718	30,053	25,498	49,658,480	9,056,448	1,517,085	175,955	331,000
Copenhagen Bailiwick	10	6,465	11,556	1,793	5,049	106,805	171,240
Fredericksborg	2	1,160	12,571	2,144	785	21,527	25,162
Cronenborg	8	4,400	55,910	1,541	4,737	97,822	184,693
Roschild	12	3,297	102,895	808	824	84,670	105,830
Aggerspris	3	4,427	23,453	373	524	123,661	211,796
Lyngby	11	9,688	91,999	484	1,001	51,537	56,666
Wordingborg	15	1,658	11,191	4,765	1,502	120,071	182,458
Drabholm	5	6,226	48,113	1,401	682	52,178	223,494
Holbocks	10	5,942	87,358	5,719	40	106,281	174,776
Callundborg, or Sebygaard	11	1,608	91,151	5,433	1,178	111,865	182,500
Antvorskov	7	1,684	63,187	10,801	1,834	71,918	111,406
Cusper	4	5,009	27,193	1,783	3,204	75,405	126,374
Sorof	6	2,034	28,732	2,111	1,613	43,979	54,296
Ringsted	4	3,565	31,411	10,473	1,013	70,157	107,404
Island and Bailiwick of Moen	56	3,105	471,411	12,315	965	43,503	63,822
Fionia in general	56	3,105	471,411	13,200	2,047	22,080,150	561,911	943,082	966,667	419,155	80,000
Hindgaal	5	3,609	50,705	1,168	371	29,802	101,410
Alsen	4	3,435	52,750	1,268	1,111	62,452	105,540
Sebygaard	4	3,435	52,750	1,268	1,111	62,452	105,540
Odense	15	3,471	132,261	4,255	3,909	157,955	334,762
Niborg	23	4,761	131,766	5,920	1,481	259,254	387,472
Laaland in general	21	6,493	160,971	3,138	3,796	7,547,935	917,115	321,046	157,667	110,618	34,400
Aalholm, or Mariaboe Klosters	13	6,096	91,473	1,433	2,369	157,112	182,046
Halsed Klosters	8	5,297	69,494	1,795	281	46,713	138,365
Island of Laogeland in general	4	9,075	41,962	967	2,771	2,071,115	49,343	82,384	444,400	91,597	8,700
Island of Falster in general	8	4,161	60,369	5,332	2,292	2,998,156	81,431	150,568	657,702	37,637	13,700
Island of Arrol in general	1	4,816	13,914	219	6,430	13,411	27,886	261,702	1,569	6,500

(Continued to next Page.)

TABLE CONTINUED.

NAMES OF THE PROVINCE AND THE BAILLIWICK.	XII. Population by square Miles.	XIII. Number of Men that can live upon the Produce of the Country.	XIV. Number of Men that can be supported by the Crops growing in the Country.	XV. The Proportion between Cultivated and Fallow Land.	XVI. Tun of Land necessary for a Tun of Grain.	XVII. Produce of a Tun of Grain in general.	XVIII. How many Tuns of Grain there are by square Miles.	XIX. Ton of Arable Land, for each Family.	XX. Wood Land, for each Fa- mily in general.	XXI. Number of Cords of Wood that might be allowed for each Family in ge- neral.	XXII. Turf Land that might be allowed, for each Fa- mily in general.
Bailiwick of Zealand.	Men.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Proportion.	Tun.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Ditto.	Cords.	Bushels.
Zealand and Moen in General	2,515	407,292	356,408	530	8 1/2	17 1/2	7,749	12 1/2	2 2 1/2	7 1/2	2 1/2
Copenhagen Bailiwick	34,241	25,353	0	5 1/2	14 1/2	8,073
Hjortholm	5,028	4,190	85	2 1/2	17 1/2	5,986
Fredrichsborg	26,933	22,445	4	3	18 1/2	6,941
Cronborg	21,164	17,637	67	9 1/2	23	6,258
Roeskilde	42,339	35,929	13	8	18	8,069
Agerspris	11,574	9,477	6	1	16	8,462
Vejlegreve	26,572	20,476	14	5	15	7,483
Nordborg	44,765	37,304	91	29	19 1/2	7,411
Drutholm	19,647	16,372	7	5 1/2	19 1/2	8,771
Holbecks	34,555	29,129	1	1	17	8,244
Calundborg, or Sahyegaards	30,398	25,129	87	19	16 1/2	8,243
Amverskow	22,282	18,768	91	20	14 1/2	7,845
Conserf	25,275	21,662	65	16	15	8,425
Soroe	10,873	9,044	21	4	15 1/2	6,166
Rungsted	21,451	17,201	27	17	15 1/2	7,671
island and Bailiwick of Moen	15,765	11,470	53	9 1/2	21 1/2	8,002
Bailiwick of Funen.	34	9
Fionia in general	1,420	186,605	157,170	57	9	16	8,573	29 1/2	2 5 1/2	8 1/2	4 1/2
Hindsgaul	16,301	13,901	5 1/2	9 1/2	19 1/2	8,206
Assens	21,100	17,583	5 1/2	9 1/2	19 1/2	8,477
Ruggaard	16,776	13,979	5 1/2	8 1/2	17 1/2	8,551
Odenise	59,952	44,127	64	1	18 1/2	8,625
Nibourg	77,494	64,378	44	1	17 1/2	8,114
Bailiwick of Lolland.
Laaland in general	1,489	64,388	59,657	20	7	14 1/2	7,497	18 1/2	4 6 1/2	15 1/2	2 1/2
Alsbolm, or Marieboe Klosters	26,589	20,491	7	3	15 1/2	6,998
Fialsted Klosters	27,799	23,166	13	3 1/2	14 1/2	8,108
Island of Langeland in general	1,976	16,798	13,997	5 1/2	7 1/2	18 1/2	7,536	17 1/2	15 1/2	5 1/2	2 1/2
Island of Fangel in general	1,627	24,108	20,069	5 1/2	9 1/2	18 1/2	7,161	18 1/2	15 1/2	5 1/2	2 1/2
Island of Arrok in general	4,387	5,505	4,638	14 1/2	1	14 1/2	9,391	6 1/2	3 2 1/2	17	1 1/2

There are four inspectors and six receivers paid by government at Copenhagen. These have a hundred clerks under them, with a salary of one hundred rix-dollars. The port-inspectors have from twelve to one thousand four hundred rix-dollars; the receivers at different ports from two to four hundred. A subaltern clerk is never allowed to remain more than eight days at the same port. The whole expence of the custom-houses amounts to one hundred and fifty-five thousand, eight hundred and fifty-one rix-dollars: and the profits are as follow; viz. at Copenhagen, in 1769, two hundred thousand, six hundred and forty-two rix-dollars, seventy skellings; at the Sound, three hundred and ninety-eight thousand, five hundred and seventy-eight; and eighty-three thousand, six hundred and sixty-eight at the remaining thirty-one Custom-houses in Denmark; one hundred and fourteen thousand, four hundred and sixty-six, at the twenty-two in Sleswig and Holstein; four hundred and eighty-one thousand, and sixty-six, at the four in Norway; making in all one million, two hundred and seventy-eight thousand, four hundred and twenty rix-dollars, seventy skellings. In 1786 the profits amounted to one million, six hundred and eighty thousand rix-dollars; viz. Copenhagen, three hundred and ninety-nine thousand, eight hundred and ninety-nine; the Sound, five hundred and fifty thousand; the other Danish Custom-houses, one hundred and fifty thousand, one hundred and one; Sleswig and Holstein, one hundred and twenty thousand; Norway, four hundred and sixty thousand; making the above-mentioned sum of one million, six hundred and eighty thousand rix-dollars; which, from the year 1769, was an increase of four hundred and one thousand, five hundred and seventy-nine rix-dollars.

A person, who is very well informed of every thing that passes,

has calculated by approximation the articles in the woollen and linen cloth manufactories which are smuggled into the two kingdoms; the first is estimated to amount to seven hundred and thirty-one thousand, one hundred rix-dollars, and the second to one hundred and eighty-six thousand, four hundred and forty-eight, making in the whole nine hundred and seventeen thousand, five hundred and forty-eight rix-dollars. As for wines, brandy, tobacco, silks, iron ware, and jewelery, they come to two millions, seven hundred and fifty-two thousand, six hundred and forty-four rix-dollars, which proves how considerably the king is a loser; almost as much indeed as he gains. If the duties are estimated at two-fifths, the sum will amount to about one million, four hundred and sixty-eight thousand, and seventy-six rix-dollars.

There is likewise another contraband trade for gold and silver carried on at Hamburgh by means of the Jews, and nothing but Danish coin is seen in this town. This commerce is very strictly forbidden. The stock-jobbers buy Danish bank-bills with ducats, and these bills are always very low upon 'change. But though this traffic among the Jews is very prejudicial to the country, there are ten thousand living in Copenhagen, where they have a synagogue and are protected by government. They formerly carried on this contraband trade for old small silver coin; but since the bank was established at Altona, where the minters strike money of a much better alloy, they have given it up, as being no longer profitable.

There are vessels kept by government in the road of Copenhagen, in order to watch the foreign ones in the port; and if a signal is made to any shallop, it is obliged to stop: merchantmen must do the same; and if they refuse, recourse is had to the guard-frigate, which enforces obedience. Shallops of this kind

are continually sailing up and down by night near the vessels; Government keeps a guard-frigate at Elsineur, with some other smaller vessels; the same on the Great Belt; and on the smaller Belt a snow and a bark.

The general chamber of the customs at Copenhagen has three deputies, with salaries of three thousand rix-dollars for the first, two thousand for the second, and one thousand five hundred for the third. There are seven under-deputies, who have from twelve to one thousand four hundred rix-dollars, and six counsellors, whose salaries do not exceed four hundred. A court of chancery, composed of a secretary at one thousand rix-dollars, an under secretary at three hundred, and a transcriber at one hundred and fifty. A chamber of archives, the chief, one thousand rix-dollars, the clerk three hundred, and the transcriber one hundred and fifty. There are four inspectors of the customs at Copenhagen, with annual salaries of from twelve to one thousand four hundred rix-dollars; two writers, one for imports and another for exports, at one thousand rix-dollars; a storekeeper, a writer for the storehouse, a weigher, two collectors, two gaugers, four principal searchers, one measurer for the ships, and one comptroller. These have all from two to four hundred rix-dollars. The port properly so called, and the new port, have four comptrollers, at two, three, and four hundred rix-dollars. The corn-mills are upon the ramparts, where are two receivers for the duties upon provisions, a cashier, and four comptrollers, at two, three, and four hundred rix-dollars. There are four receivers for the duties upon provisions at the city gates, with six comptrollers, at two, three, and four hundred rix-dollars; and a hundred inferior clerks distributed about in different parts of the town and without the gates, at one hundred rix-dollars. The salaries of these inferior clerks used to be very trifling. All

vessels from foreign ports, and even from Norway, are now obliged to pay about eight skellings per tun entrance; and upon going out two or four skellings, according to the vessel being half or entirely laden.

The above was a real statement of the customs in 1791, but every thing relative to that and the excise was regulated in Denmark and Norway by an ordinance of the first of February 1796. This was founded on principles, the utility of which has been proved both by reason and experience.

The export and import duties, and those levied on articles of consumption, brought into the several towns, which used to form two different departments, are now comprised under one head, and subject to one administration.

The laws against prohibited articles were exercised with great severity, and the effect of this system was the same in the Danish dominions as in every other part of the world; without increasing the national profit, it encouraged fraudulent practices. The regular line of trade suffered, and the state was deprived of a revenue, of which it stood in the greatest need; the duties were so complicated, that the receivers were equally puzzled with the contributors, and were lost in a labyrinth of calculations and difficult combinations. Prohibited articles are now much limited, and those only are contraband which particular circumstances made it impossible to be otherwise. The duties are simplified, and form the only tax received at the Custom-house, and which is paid under the different denominations of import, export, transit, and consumption. The tariff is fixed according to the price of the merchandise, the want of it in the country, and the general state of commerce. It being impossible to decide in a moment on the proper measures to be pursued, government has

attended to the objections made to any part of the reform, and ~~has~~ amended the original plan whenever it was found necessary so to do. The ship duties are also comprised in one single tax ; the vessels which frequent the Mediterranean, are however subject to some particular duties. They have also continued some of the numerous duties of the former excise, such as that paid to the mills, another due for making brandy, and a third called the duty on waggons.

The declarations given in by merchants and captains of ships, which were formerly taken down in writing, and confirmed upon oath, are now received verbally, and they trust entirely to the honor of the parties concerned. If fraudulent practices are discovered, they are punished according to the offence. The fees paid to Custom-house officers are no longer arbitrary. They are fixed by a tariff, and being paid at the same time as the public duties, are properly divided amongst the officers.

All foreign merchandise may now enter the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway on paying the duties prescribed by the tariff. The following articles are alone excepted :—

1. *Raw and refined sugar*, from different European ports ; because, according to the arrangement of colonial commerce, the sugars from Santa Cruz are not allowed to enter any other ports in Europe excepting those of Denmark.
2. *Glass*, during the space of seven years, commencing from the first of January 1797, in which time those who form the glass-houses in Norway have obtained a promise of this prohibition being strictly adhered to. Looking-glasses and glazing are not comprised in the above prohibition.
3. *Porcelain*, because the china manufactory is the concern of

the state, and is able to supply the two kingdoms with a merchandise which may be rather regarded as an article of luxury than of necessity.

4. *Colored earthenware*, which may be regarded in the same light as china, plain, yellow, or white ware, being more absolutely necessary, is allowed; as is also the porcelain from China, brought over by vessels belonging to the East India Company.
5. *Playing Cards*, because the revenue proceeding from the stamp duty paid by the Danish card manufactories, is appropriated to Frederick's Hospital, and to other benevolent institutions.
6. *Roasted coffee*, likewise *roasted succory*, or any other herbs used as a substitute for coffee, and this because when once roasted it is impossible to discover whether there is any mixture of poisonous herbs, or any other unwholesome article.
7. *Printed linens*, also *wool*, as specified in the tariff.

Some articles of absolute necessity, and others which are essential for the encouragement of the arts, are exempted from the entrance duties.

All merchandise, the immediate produce of the Danish states, may be exported on paying the duties; except indeed, wood, in some particular districts of Norway. Foreign merchandise, being once imported, is allowed to go again out of the country. The ordinance admits of two kinds of staple, that of *transit*, and of *credit*: the first takes place, when foreign merchandise is deposited ready for exportation, or till the proprietor has positively declared it's destination: the second, when foreign merchandise is delivered to the proprietor, and left entirely at his disposal

giving him credit for the import duties, which he pays if the goods remain in the country, but which is deducted from the expences if he exports them into foreign countries, or into free ports. All necessary precautions for the preservation of articles admitted into the staple, and for insuring the payment of duties and expences, are determined by the ordinance. The transit duty is one per cent. including the stamped paper and other expences.

Foreign nations are distinguished by the terms privileged and non-privileged; which distinction is founded on treaties of commerce and alliance. The former pay the same duties as the inhabitants of Denmark and Norway; the latter pay more, and this augmentation is so managed as to make the third of the whole sum. The transit and consumption duties are equally the same for all.

The regulation for fixing in a more exact manner how far the foreign ministers and residents at his majesty's court should be exempted from duties, took place in 1771; when it was agreed, that the entrance duties should be remitted as far as one thousand five hundred rix-dollars, to an ambassador ordinary and extraordinary; to one thousand, for a minister plenipotentiary, an envoy extraordinary, or minister of the second order; and to five hundred for a resident or chargé d' affaires: but that their privilege should extend no further, and that they should pay duty for every thing exceeding the above-mentioned sums.

Free Ports.

The Danish islands of St. Thomas and St. John have free ports; and it is the same at Altona. But there are two Custom-houses in Santa Cruz, one at Fredericstadt, and another at Chris-

tianstadt. The officers are paid the double of what they receive in Denmark, besides other small profits upon the coming in and going out of the different vessels. It has been thought prudent to make their situation as good as possible, because it is very essential that foreigners should not furnish this land with provisions, since it is the only mart the Danes have for their commodities, and yields a great part of the sugar consumed in the mother-country, to which it likewise sends all the cotton employed in the manufactories. Efforts were making towards the end of 1790, to change the manner of directing the customs and the entrance duties. According to the opinion of many, the happiest circumstance that could happen to the country at large, and particularly at Copenhagen, would be to make this town a free port; at least it is really necessary there should be one at Elsinour.

The outward commerce, exclusive of the East and West Indies, amounts to about seven million rix-dollars, two million of which are for Copenhagen, two million and half for the rest of Denmark, and two million and half for Norway. The imports and exports are nearly equal, because Norway gains what Denmark loses by the latter.

Exchange and Commission.

The exchange is principally regulated upon that of Hamburgh. The Danish bills lost sixteen per cent. in 1787, at the exchange at Hamburgh; and current paper, notwithstanding the secrecy observed in that particular, may be valued at eighteen million rix-dollars. Denmark makes no profit by commission, except in war time: and Copenhagen scarcely gained more than two hundred thousand rix-dollars in 1787. It is therefore easy to judge by this calculation what was the case in other places.

CHAP. IX.

Taxes.—State of the Finances.

THE revenues of the state arise from the king's demesnes, and from different contributions levied upon the subject.

In Denmark, land is taxed in proportion to it's goodness and fertility, which is valued by the number of tuns of wheat and rye employed for sowing a certain extent of ground. Land is divided into six classes, according to it's value:—this method serves as a rule to the chamber of demesnes for rating the taxes.†

First Class.—Those lands which only require two tuns of wheat and rye to sow a field of twenty-eight thousand square ells are esteemed the best.

Second Class.—Those which require five tuns of wheat and rye for an acre of fifty-six thousand square ells are also reckoned very good.

* Several taxes have been since increased, and changes have taken place in many others; but not having been able to procure an exact statement, I forbear laying them before the reader.

† This table is the best arranged of any which has been made of the same nature, and contains the most extensive and interesting particulars of the Statistics of Zealand and the adjacent islands in the dependence of Denmark.

Third Class.—Those which require eight tuns for sowing a piece of ground of eighty-four thousand square ells.

Fourth Class.—Those which take ten tuns for a hundred and twenty-six thousand square ells.

Fifth Class.—Those which require sixteen tuns for a hundred and sixty-eight thousand square ells.

Sixth Class.—Those which require twenty tuns for two hundred and twenty-four thousand square ells are certainly the least fertile.

Meadows are also divided into classes, according to their fruitfulness, and to the number of waggon-loads of hay they produce.

This division of land was first established by Christian V. who made a law upon the occasion, by which it was enacted, that the taxes once fixed by this law should never be increased; and this has been always strictly observed by his successors; so that whenever the proprietor has improved his land, either by draining marshes, or by any other means, he receives the whole of the profit, without paying any more to the king than what was originally stipulated by Christian the Fifth. This is certainly a very wise law, and calculated to encourage the progress of agriculture.

The contributions levied upon lands or demesnes may, in general, be divided into two parts.

1st, The contributions levied in ready money at four different times of the year; viz. in January, April, July, and October, for the tax upon fields and meadows, at the rate of eleven marks four skellings *per ann.* for every acre of land which is sowed with a tun of wheat and rye; and at eight marks four skellings more if there are any mills or woods.

2d. The contributions in grain, part of which are paid in stock, and part in ready money, according to the ordinance published every year by the chamber of demesnes. This contribution is levied equally in every province, and in equal proportions: but some places furnished more rye and barley, and others more oats than what the country yields of these different articles. When this contribution is paid in money, a tun of wheat and rye is valued at four marks four skellings.

The proprietors of manor lands, who pay nothing to the king, are exempt from this contribution. All counts have a portion of ground sown with three hundred tuns of wheat and rye; and barons with one hundred tuns, which is free from this duty, without reckoning those fields which are tilled by average.

The origin of manor lands bears date from 1660, because the nobles paid no tax for any of their lands till the Revolution; but at that time, the government limited in some degree their privileges; and they are now only free from taxes for the land they till for their own use, upon condition that they likewise possess two hundred tuns of wheat and rye in feudal lands. This is an imaginary measure, which is usually esteemed at a hundred and twelve thousand square feet of arable land; but it in fact varies according to the quality of the soil. It is also required that this land, for which the lord of the manor pays taxes, shall be at no greater distance than two miles from his house. If these manor lands fall into the hands of a plebeian, he is equally exempted from the tax, because he is responsible, in the same manner as his predecessor, to the king for the peasant's tax; but he is not to enjoy personal privileges, such as hunting, shooting, &c. &c.

The burgesses of Copenhagen are only reckoned noble, when they are in possession of such lands; they enjoy all the prerogatives of the nobility, and have done so ever since that city was

attacked by the Swedes in 1717, who were repulsed by the students and burgers. It is also necessary to observe, that the whole of the soil belongs to the lord of the manor; the peasant has no property in it, and only cultivates it according to the contract between them. The annual rent paid to the landlord, either in provisions or money, is fixed by an ordinance, and he cannot exact more than one retribution at every mutation; but it is out of his power to encroach on this privilege, because the law obliges him never to leave any land without a tenant. The peasants are held to cultivate by average a certain portion of land in their lord's estate; but this is done by assessment equally amongst them. There are a great many estates where this average no longer exists, the peasants having bought it off. These two contributions in Denmark, Norway, and Holstein, bring in the yearly sum of about four millions of rix-dollars.

The contributions levied in towns may be equally divided into two parts; into particular contributions paid into the coffers of each town, and into general ones.

The first consists in what the inhabitants pay for different articles of convenience, such as watchmen, cleansing and lighting the town, &c. This contribution varies according to the size and situation of the place.

The second consists in the revenues of the Custom-house, and the tax upon the consumption of different commodities. This second article comprises what is paid at every mile for keeping the causeways in repair, and likewise the poll-tax, which every one is obliged to pay in the following manner:—A person of high rank, fifty-six rix-dollars; a private gentleman, who does not serve in the army, twenty rix-dollars; an ecclesiastic, residing in town, ten rix-dollars, if living in the country, four rix-

dollars, and a servant one rix-dollar. This proceeds from an assessment, which makes the rich pay for the poor.

The government has thought proper, in order to render the manufactures more flourishing, to prohibit the entry of several kinds of merchandise of the same nature as those manufactured in the Danish dominions ; and not to permit any India silks to be imported, except in Danish vessels. But there are some things entirely exempted from Custom-house duties, such as geographical maps, globes, books, and different articles employed in the manufactures of the country.

Independent of the port duties, there is an additional one of fifty rix-dollars, which all captains of ships bound to Portugal and the Mediterranean are obliged to pay for their passports ; but if any one can prove that he has not gone farther than Cape Finisterre, the money is returned. This duty is by way of equivalent to government for the expence of insuring the vessels from the insults of the Barbary Corsairs : the product of it is employed in presents of ammunition from the Court of Denmark every two years to the Dey of Algiers ; but these amount to a very trifling sum.

There are also duties upon exporting oxen and horses ; two rix-dollars for an ox, and four for a horse. This duty has been lately diminished.

A great part of the revenue of the Custom-house, farmed for five hundred thousand rix-dollars, is mortgaged to the creditors of the state. All servants residing in town pay their poll-tax every two months ; a shop-boy pays eight marks per annum ; a man-servant, or a journeyman, six marks, and a maid-servant four marks.

The poll-tax in the country is paid by every family : those

employed in bailiwicks, and those who reside upon lands belonging to the king, are taxed one rix-dollar for every one of the family who is arrived at the age of twelve years. Those who have horses at Copenhagen pay one rix-dollar; and those who possess fallow land, and who do not contribute to the territorial jurisdiction, are likewise taxed one rix-dollar.

Clergymen, in priest's orders, pay four marks for every person in their family; chaplains and sextons two marks; provosts and millers the same sum; stewards or bailiffs of land-holders three marks; and the maid-servant eight skellings; land-holders generally farm this tax, and are answerable for the payment.

Counts and barons* who reside upon their manors, or who hold any privileged places; officers in actual service, their wives, children, and their dependents, who serve the state in war time, are exempted from this contribution in every part of the king's dominions, except in the dutchy of Holstein.

The revenues of the post, which, ever since the reign of Frederic VI. have belonged exclusively to the king, amount to more than two hundred thousand rix-dollars.

The tax upon stamped paper is fixed, by the ordinance of 1791, (there is another of a later date), wherein it is decreed, that no other paper can be employed for bonds, contracts, reversions, and receipts. This duty amounts to nearly sixty thousand rix-dollars.

* There being no dukes in Denmark, the counts hold the first rank; all classes, whether civil or military, either in the land or sea-service, take rank in the following order:—The blue ribands, or knights of the elephant, privy-counsellor of conference, generals, admirals, privy-counsellor, lieutenant-generals, vice-admirals, these have the title of excellence; counsellor of conference, major-generals, rear-admirals, counsellor of state, colonels, commodores, counsellor of justice, lieutenant-colonels, captain-commanders, counsellor of the chancery, majors, captains;—these persons are generally called by their titles; this is also customary throughout Germany.

The bank has belonged to the king ever since the year 1773. It was first formed in 1736, by a subscription of a thousand shares, at five hundred crowns each ; the price is now increased to one thousand two hundred and fifty.

A change in the present administration of this bank is in contemplation. The following are some of the alterations proposed, the preliminaries being first approved by his majesty.

Every share of the new bank shall cost five hundred crowns specie ; and, under the sanction of the proprietor's name, people may take whatever number they please.

The new bank shall lend upon deposits of real value, or on undoubted securities, for a fixed time of from one to six months. An office shall be opened for discounting bills of exchange, and other papers known to be valid ; the pledges are likewise to be deposited there ; no other public office being permitted to receive them. It shall lend or discount at four per cent. per annum, and shall have a duty of one per thousand upon the said deposits.

The bank may also lend or discount bills ; but it shall be obliged, on pain of being deprived of its privileges, besides being responsible for them, never to increase these bills over and above the proportion fixed between them and the real value remaining in its coffers ; so that it may always be able to discount any bills presented at a moment's warning.

Both specie and bank-bills shall have free currency in the different dutchies, in the same manner as the specie and bills of those dutchies shall be current in Denmark, without, however, any constraint.

This bank shall have a grant for the space of forty years ; and it shall be opened at Copenhagen as early as possible in the year 1791: (The grant of this new bank ought to have appeared, at

latest, in March, 1791 ; and it might reckon upon bills being drawn out every year to the amount of seven hundred and fifty thousand rix-dollars.)

The Greenland and Iceland fisheries used to be carried on upon the king's account, but his profit was very trifling. The Greenland company is now abolished, and the trade is free.

The king's revenues from the American islands, and the East Indies, consist principally in the custom-house duties upon the articles exported from those countries, together with the acknowledgement of one per cent. paid by the East-India Company, and by private individuals, for the permission of trading to Tranquebar and Bengal.

The silver mines in Norway yield the king very little ; the expences attending them swallowing up all the profit. Indeed the only advantage they are of to the nation is affording means of subsistence to ten thousand people, who are employed in working them, and increasing the circulation of silver coin.

Besides the above-mentioned taxes, there are extra ones laid on in time of war, and on any other particular occasion when the state is in want of money. Those of this nature, existing at present, are as follow :—

Tax upon Rank.

The nobility of the first class, pay eight rix-dollars per annum. Those of the second, seventy rix-dollars ; the third, forty ; the fourth, twenty-four ; the fifth, eighteen ; the sixth, fifteen ; the seventh, twelve ; the eighth, eight ; and the ninth, six rix-dollars : widows only pay half these sums.

Tax upon Places and Pensions.

All whose places amount to five hundred rix-dollars per annum, are taxed ten per cent.

From 400 to 450 rix-dollars	9
From 350 to 400	8
From 300 to 350	7
From 250 to 300	5
From 200 to 250	4
From 150 to 200	3
From 100 to 150	2

Those who are actually employed in the councils, are exempted from this tax, which was levied in 1768, and intended only to last two years; but that term has been since prolonged, with a positive promise, however, that it should last no longer than the exigencies of the state required; but that being the case, there is very little hope of it's being taken off for some time. There is likewise a tax of two and a half per cent. paid by all placemen for stamped paper.

The tax called *Extra-steuer*, was levied in 1762, for redeeming the state debts. Every inhabitant of Denmark, and the different dutchies, pays a crown per annum for this purpose. The peasants in Norway having strongly opposed the tax, that country has been exempted from paying it ever since 1772: this step was thought necessary, the peasants being remarkably poor, and the circumstances of the times making it prudent to be upon good terms with them. However, rich families are still required to present what they term a free-gift annually for every person residing in town aged twelve years, and sixteen years, if living in

the country. This tax does not bring in more than thirty thousand crowns throughout the whole of Norway.

The king receives a certain sum from every public sale, according to the value of the goods sold : he has also a quarter per cent. upon all stock, and all land estates.

The lottery formerly brought in to the king nearly four hundred thousand rix-dollars ; but this is no longer the case, the adventurers being every year less numerous, consequently the profits not so great.

The king receives a fixed sum for patents of every kind, for ribands, and for the chamberlain's key, viz. for the blue riband, one thousand two hundred rix-dollars ; for the white, seven hundred, and for the chamberlain's key five hundred. None of this money, however, is actually paid into the king's coffers ; one half being a fee to the secretary of the orders, and the rest appropriated to the use of churches and hospitals.

Statement of the whole of the King of Denmark's Revenue in 1770.

		Rix-dollars.
Land revenues	. .	4,000,000
Custom-house duties	. .	500,000
Extra-steve tax	. .	1,000,000
Poll and other taxes	. .	1,000,000
Total		6,500,000

Annual Expenditure.

		Rix-dollars.
Charge of the civil list	. .	2,000,000
_____ army	. .	2,000,000
_____ admiralty	. .	800,000
Carried forward		4,800,000

	Rix-dollars.
Brought forward	4,800,000
For redeeming debts	1,000,000
For pensions	800,000
Interest of the national debt	480,000
Total	<u>7,080,000</u>

The prince's appanages are not included in this estimate, nor the expences of the court, nor the interest of sums employed by the king for extra expences, such as

	Rix-dollars.
The establishment of the whale fishery	600,000
The Holstein canal	400,000
The purchase of glass-houses in Norway	70,000
The purchase of the town of Tranquebar	170,000
Total	<u>1,240,000</u>

This statement proves that the expenditure exceeds the revenues; consequently the nation is obliged to contract fresh debts to supply the deficiencies. Part is liquidated every year; but the Crown has hitherto only paid those contracted in the kingdom, and that only in paper money; by this means, however, the interest is saved, which must otherwise be paid to the subject annually, at four per cent. The quantity of paper-money increases surprisingly; but it begins to lose its credit: and Danish bank bills lost six and eight per cent. at Hamburgh towards the year 1790. There is generally a great scarcity of gold and silver money in Denmark, though the customs of the Sound are paid in specie; but the court being obliged to make remit-

tauces in specie, to discharge the interest of debts in foreign countries, and likewise to pay the ministers in different courts in the same manner, very little remains in the country. Notwithstanding it is strictly forbidden to export Danish ducats, the Jews, of whom there are great numbers in Copenhagen, always contrive to send out a considerable quantity every year. Besides the Court of Copenhagen has no great credit in foreign countries; and though it is often obliged to have recourse to Holland, Switzerland, and Genoa, for money, it is always borrowed with great difficulty. We have been assured, that there was not more than twenty million rix-dollars in paper current throughout the kingdom. But we have reason to doubt this fact, when we consider the very great quantity of these bills that are constantly circulated in the king's dominions.

The effective debts amounted, in 1790, to thirteen millions, six hundred, and fifty-four thousand, and forty-six rix-dollars; and in Jan. 1787, to twenty-six million, four hundred, and fifty-two thousand, nine hundred, and thirteen rix-dollars; fourteen million three hundred, and seventy-nine thousand, four hundred and four of which are owing to foreign countries, and twelve million, seventy-three thousand, four hundred and nineteen borrowed at home. What the king borrowed in Holland for the use of his American subjects, and which they have never repaid him, is not comprised in the above sum. The interest of the first sum was six hundred and fifty-seven thousand, six hundred and ninety rix-dollars; and the second, five hundred and fifty-two thousand, two hundred and thirty-eight. The total revenue of Denmark amounted, in 1769, to three million, one hundred and five thousand, one hundred and sixteen rix-dollars; of Norway, to one million, one hundred and fifty-six thousand, nine hundred and eighty; of the dutchies, to one million, three hundred and twenty-eight thousand, and two;

of the Dutchy of Ploen, one hundred and one thousand, five hundred and seventy-four; the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, two hundred and eighty-eight thousand, four hundred and six; the American islands, one hundred and thirty-three thousand, four hundred and eighty-two—of which Santa Cruz amounted to one hundred and five thousand, two hundred and ninety-five; St. Thomas's, to twenty-five thousand, three hundred and forty-six; and St. John's, to two thousand, eight hundred and forty-one;—in the whole to about six million, one hundred and thirteen thousand, five hundred and sixty rix-dollars. And the remainder of the taxes and revenues not yet paid into the king's coffer, at the end of 1789, amounted to six hundred and thirty-one thousand one hundred and one rix-dollars. The revenues of the state in 1786 were seven million, two hundred and six thousand, two hundred and forty rix-dollars; as will presently appear.

	Rix-dollars.
Ordinary revenues of Denmark . . .	2,836,000
————— Norway . . .	1,105,400
————— the dutchies . . .	1,750,300
Extra revenues of the whole dominions .	1,514,500
	<hr/>
Total . . .	7,206,240
Ordinary expences . . .	7,149,000
	<hr/>
Remainder	57,240
	<hr/>

But, according to a calculation made for the last sixteen years, the extra expences amounted to from five to six hundred thousand rix-dollars. There will then be a deficiency of about five

hundred thousand rix-dollars.—The following is an account of the expenditures in 1786 :

	Rix-dollars.	Ske.
Expences of the court, appanages, stables	826,946	0
Department of foreign affairs	145,449	0
Department of the tribunals of police throughout the kingdom	260,613	26
Department of finances and chamber of accounts, comprising thirty thousand rix-dollars, for improving the king's demesnes at Cronenburg and Fredericksburg	257,360	11
Department of woods and forests	68,156	64
Department of the customs	155,851	4
The clergy, universities, schools, and other establishments appertaining thereto	108,336	7
Colonies, comptrollers of commerce, directors, and other people employed in that line	158,623	40
Presents to the powers in Barbary, consuls in Barbary, and the trade's premium	137,637	48
Expence of the causeways in Denmark	27,233	0
Wages and extra augmentations	91,179	51
Pensions	370,280	0
Pensions given at intervals	98,230	0
Different trifling expences	429,109	0
<hr/>		
The whole expence of the civil list	3,135,004	59
Military land establishment	1,814,900	0
Navy	930,000	0
Losses sustained at the Konsberg mines	20,000	0
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Carried forward	5,899,904	59

	Rix-dollars.	Ske.
Brought forward	5,899,904	59
Interest paid for foreign debts in 1786	657,590	70
For those in the country	522,237	82
Total	7,079,723	19
The king's coffers contained in 1786	1,179,828	4
The coffers of the bank	354,835	0
And that for the encouragement of industry	337,463	0

Revenues of the Customs in 1786.

	Rix-dollars.	Ske.
Customs in Denmark	550,000	0
Customs of the Sound	550,000	0
Tax upon articles of consumption	1,100,000	0
[620,000 are for Copenhagen alone.]		
Customs in Norway	460,000	0
Duties upon articles of consumption	96,000	0
Tax and tithes upon copper and iron	80,000	0
Customs in the dutchies	120,000	0
Total	2,956,000	0

Appanages of the Royal Family and other Princes.

	Rix-dollars.	Ske.
The queen dowager	91,460	0
The prince Royal	13,000	0
The princess Louisa Augusta	7,200	0
Carried forward	111,660	0

	Rix-dollars.	Ske.
Brought forward	111,660	0
The prince of Holstein Sunderburg her husband	22,000	0
The prince Frederick	75,500	0
The princess Louisa and prince Charles of Hesse	39,231	0
The two young princesses of Augustenburg	2,000	0
The prince of Wirtemberg	1,000	0
The prince Emilius of Augustenburg ;—(the pension continued five years after his death)	5,000	0
The prince Charles of Holsteinbeck	11,500	0
Total	267,891	0
The Holstein canal cost	2,512,432	36
The Norway glass-houses	137,209	0
The china manufactory at Copenhagen	200,000	0

The government has taken measures to make an equal balance between the expenditures and the receipts: and the following reforms were in contemplation in 1791. Though they bear in some degree upon the army and navy, neither the number of regiments nor men of war will be diminished. These reforms will amount to about ten or twelve per cent. of the expences of the state. The reductions will principally affect the court itself; and the prince royal thought he ought to sacrifice his personal comforts sooner than charge the people with fresh taxes.

These reforms are intended to re-establish the balance, and by this overplus of the revenue to pay the national debt sooner. The motive is undoubtedly very praise-worthy: but it appears that many of these suppressions relate to very trifling objects, and to expences that might as well have been continued. The

following articles are to be reformed immediately ; many others are only thought necessary in future ; but they are equally certain to take place.

The real savings may be estimated at the following sums :—

	Rix-dollars.
In the army establishment at first	50,000
And in the course of a few years at	50,000
The extra funds which were not destined for the maintenance of the fleet, but for amendments not specified, will be suppressed, and will amount to	55,000
The navy will be reduced to the former regulation, by which means the expence will be diminished	160,000
The ordinary expences of the court will be reduced	8,000
The extra ones will be entirely abolished. They amount to	40,000
Deducted from the expence of the king's gardens	8,000
From the stud	6,000
From the chase	4,000
The funds called the king's wardrobe will be suppressed	4,000
The extra funds for repairing the causeways	5,000
Reformed in the king's stables	4,000
The post of master of the horse, and ditto for journeys, will be suppressed	6,000
The funds for keeping up the king's buildings will	
Carried forward	400,000

	Rix-dollars.
Brought forward	400,000
be diminished, from it's being determined to leave many castles uninhabited	4,000
By reducing some articles relating to the pages, a saving will be made	4,000
The funds of the theatre are to lose	7,000
The prince royal will give up the funds assigned him for maintaining the castle of Sophienberg	2,500
Certain salaries granted to the university	3,000
Annual funds for a frigate for evolutions	6,000
Certain salaries which hitherto have been exempt from the general abatements shall, for the future, be subject to them	14,000*
The diminution of the funds in the department of foreign affairs, in the chamber of accounts, in the college of commerce, and the post-office, will make a saving of	25,000
The economical reform in working the silver mines in Konsberg will save	40,000
The funds for cleansing the port will be abolished	15,000
[Note. The port being now sufficiently cleansed for armed vessels to go out.]	
The saving upon other different objects of less importance will amount to	5,000
So that the sum total of savings will be	525,500
Carried forward	525,500

* Those enjoyed by the *émérité* and poor pensioners are to be excepted.

Rix-dollars.

52,500

Brought forward

The increase of receipts, upon which the commission of finances, established for that purpose, still continue to deliberate, will consist in duties upon the consumption of different articles of luxury, such as sugar, powder, &c., which will amount to about

60,000

Duties upon the entry of some prohibited goods, the importation of which will not interfere with the manufacture of the country

8,000

Tax upon collateral successions in place of the duty upon timber

20,000

The hundredth part in corn, paid in stock in Denmark, will produce, by the diminution of the quantity assigned to certain establishments, the œconomy put in practice by the court, and saving the rent of storehouses, together with the expence of transporation, at least

60,000

And in other trifling augmentations of the revenue arising from a more exact manner of collecting the taxes

6,000

Total of savings, and increase of receipts

679,500

The reform intended to take place in future will amount, it is thought, to five or six hundred thousand rix-dollars. There are to be no extra expences in time of peace, but what can be provided for by the overplus of the revenue.

An Account of Denmark's Revenues, as in the Year 1692.

	Rix-dollars.
Toll of the Sound	65,000
All the rest of the tolls of Denmark, farmed at	165,000
The consumption or excise of Copenhagen, farmed at	140,000
The consumption of the rest of Denmark	140,000
Smaller taxes in Denmark	100,000
Poll-tax, fortification-tax, ground-rents, hard corn tax	100,000
The revenue of Norway	700,000
King's estates, crown lands, &c.	200,000
Iceland, farmed at	27,000
Oldenburg and Delmenhorst	30,000
Toll upon the Weser	5,000
Ferroe, Greenland, &c.	0
Total	1,722,000

CHAP. X.

The principal Works which have been written upon the Geography of Denmark.—State of the Arts and Sciences.—Private Cabinets.—Learned Men.

THE best and most esteemed works written upon the geography and topography of the kingdom of Denmark, Norway, and the depending islands, in Latin and French, are as follow:—*Vitru-*

vius Danicus, two vols. in folio, enriched with two hundred and eighty-one plates, representing different edifices and fortifications. Copenhagen, 1746—1749. By L. Thurach, a Dane, in French and German. Views of the Castles and Cities in Denmark, in fifty copper-plates. Copenhagen, 1757. By Joh. Jac. Brunn. *Monumenta Fridenburgensia*, with many plates. By Bradt and Wiedewelt. *Descriptio et Illustratio Samsøë, cum figuris. Hafnia*, 1675. *Pet. Joh. Resenio auctore.—Hafnia Hodierna*, in quarto; a great number of prints; 1748. By Thurach, in French, Danish, and German. Those who wish to be acquainted with the geographical works must consult the catalogue, in three volumes, of M. Hielmstiern's library, which is in the Danish language. These works are very numerous, and a great part of them are translated into German.

The following are the most esteemed maps of Denmark and Norway:—C. C. Lous and A. Lous's hydrographical maps, which are the most generally valued by the Danish mariners; and indeed are exclusively adopted, as being the least defective. The best maps of the interior of the country are those published for some years past by the Royal Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen, which are much superior to Pontoppidan's, having been drawn and taken on the spot, and corrected by astronomical observations. There will be only one published every two years for the future. The last that came out, in 1787, represented the western part of the island of Fionia, and was the work, as indeed were the preceding ones, of a very celebrated artist, who died at thirty years of age. His successor is known by a variety of essays in the same style, which reflect great honor upon his skill in engraving. The eighth map appeared in 1789. The most exact and minute map of Denmark is Pontoppidan's Atlas, in seven quarto volumes, ornamented with a great number of plates

and maps, all of which have not yet been published by A. N. Godiche and his heirs. The academy purposes adding an eighth volume by way of supplement, which will contain, besides a collection of the most recent observations, some critical remarks upon mistakes in different places, made both by Pontoppidan and Hoffmann, who continued the work after him. This Danish atlas, reprinted in 1781, upon very fine paper, and in large characters, is now sold for from thirty-six to forty rix-dollars. Scarcely any copies remain of this edition; which is a convincing proof how highly it is esteemed by the public. A Geographical Essay upon Norway, and other Northern Countries, by G. Schionning, a Dane, treating only upon the antient geography of the north. This work is much esteemed, as is likewise a Geographical, Topographical, and Historical Description of Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and the Dutchies of Holstein, with an Introduction to Frederic IV.'s Military History, by H. O. Scheel. This last is written in German, and translated into Danish. It also contains an excellent map of Scandinavia. A Map of the Cattegat, by Captain J. Werner, at Keleye, 1770, which is very valuable, and indeed very scarce, owing to the eagerness of the Russians to have it: there are very few left, even amongst the printsellers. What has appeared of Pontoppidan's Danish atlas, published by Godiche and his heirs, as far up as 1787, is comprised in eleven maps, with three supplementary ones.

State of the Arts and Sciences.—If we compare Copenhagen in this particular to the other cities of Europe, the advantage will undoubtedly not be on her side. The northern countries are in general very much behind-hand in every thing relating to arts and sciences; which we attribute to two principal causes. In the first place, the climate can have no great attractions for

those born in a milder atmosphere; it indeed must, in a great degree, prevent learned and ingenious foreigners from settling in the country. The northern people are therefore left very much to themselves; which must have a great influence upon the state of the sciences, and still more upon that of the arts, which, in our opinion, require foreign assistance to bring them to perfection. A second obstacle is the poverty of the country, which cannot be remedied. Affluence is necessary for encouraging the arts; and it is impossible they can flourish where the fortunes of individuals are so moderate as they generally are in Denmark, though in Sweden they are still more so. It must not, however, be thought that there are no men of letters, libraries, nor cabinets of curiosities in Copenhagen. There are indeed but few, but the manufactories begin to improve; which does great honor to the government. There are fourteen printing-offices in Copenhagen for every kind of character, and even for Arabic ones; with an office for printing music. We need not, however, observe, that there is not any comparison to be made between these and the rest of Europe, where the printing-houses are so justly celebrated for the beauty of the impressions.

The small number of cabinets worthy of notice are as follow:—

M. Spengler's Cabinet.—This gentleman, who is intendant of his majesty's cabinets, has a collection of pictures, and some very valuable ones: likewise a collection of shells, which we believe to be the completest in the world; at least we have never seen, or heard of any thing equal to it.

Amongst the pictures are—

Susannah in the Bath, as large as life, by *A. Franchi*.

Holy Family, in a landscape, a small picture, by *Caracci*.

Beggars asleep, a landscape, finely painted by *Schiøne*.

Two large Sea Ports in Italy, the one at sun-set, and the other by moonlight, magnificent pictures, by *Salvator Rosa*.

Guido Reni's Alchymist, large as life.

Saint Roch, by *Tintoret*.

The Samaritan, by *Ariconi*.

A Landscape in a storm, by *Gaspard Poussin*.

Shepherds adoring Christ, by *Zucharelli*.

Mary Magdalen, with an Angel by her side, as large as life, by *Henry Goltzius*.

Portrait of Erasmus, by *Holbein*.

The Golden Age, with a number of figures, by *Abraham Blamaer*.

A Man hunting, as large as life, by *Rembrandt*.

Two Apostles' Heads, by *Rubens*.

A very fine portrait of a young Man, by *Vandyke*.

A young Girl and a Physician, a fine picture, by *J. Steen*.

Hawking, by *Wouvermans*.

A Tooth-drawer's Shop, with the Dentist taking out a Peasant's Tooth, by *Schelingeland*.

A young Apollo learning Music of Pan, with a variety of Bacchantes, by *J. Jordans*.

Moses striking the Rock, a fine picture, full of figures, by *Rottenhamer*.

The Portrait of the famous Engraver Jacob Van Schoppen's Wife, by *Lurgillitre*.

Two fine Sea Pieces, by *Vollair*.

The Sacrifice of Iphigenia, by *Lemoine*; well known by the print taken from it by *Cars*.

The Inside of a Peasant's House, and the Woman busied in cleaning and dressing her Child, by *Adr. Van Ostade*.

A Schoolmaster and his Scholar, by *G. Mieris*.

The Virgin Mary with the Infant Jesus, and a number of Angels; by *Van Balen*, in a very fine landscape, by *Breughel*.

A fine large Landscape with small figures, by *Breughel*.

A Conversation and two Allegorical Subjects, by *Pollenburg*.

Four highly-finished Heads, by *Denner*.

A number of Pictures by the famous landscape-painter *Schulz*, at Francfort-upon Mein.

Many others, by *Brandt*, Director of the Academy at Vienna.

Two Historical Pieces, by *Metterleuter*, who is now at Petersburg.

And a large Landscape by *Harper*, at Stuttgart.

The collection of shells contains almost every kind known by the antients, likewise those lately discovered, with the greatest variety of every different species.

All the scarcest of the *Lepas* kind, amongst which is a Chinese Parasol, of three inches French measure.

A very fine Oriental *Scalaris*, two inches and a quarter; ditto of a reddish color with white stripes.

The large *Nautilus larvis umbilicatus*, in it's natural colors. This is extremely scarce; and one of the same kind, though less beautiful, cost M. Paris fifty guineas.

The Royal Spur Shell.

The *Voluta reticulata*.

Two small *Trochi parvi zonis violaceis*, and other scarce *Trochi* from New Zealand.

All the different kinds of the Admiral Shell, one of which has many stripes:

<i>Conus amiralis acuminatus,</i>	<i>Conus amiralis genuanus,</i>
<i>Conus amiralis aurisiacus,</i>	<i>Conus amiralis puncticulatus.</i>

The only collection of the sort.

Conus Cedo nulli Geographus.

Jupiter's Thunderbolts, or the great Mogul's Crowns. A drawing was taken of one of these, and sent to Monsieur de Calonne.

Two superb *Voluta Æthiopica*, and many others of the same sort.

Two very scarce and fine *Mammæ Cervinæ*:

The *Buccinum costatum.* The *Nova Bulla Ceylonica.*

The *Bulla volva.*

The Orange Porcelain Shell, from New Zealand.

The true Harlequin.

Two—*Venillum arausicanum (Argen).* *Gallinula Venillum antantium (Klein).*

The *Cochlis voluta plicato muricata, striata flammis ochraceis insignita labro fimbriato.*

Columella plicis copiosis armata rarissima (Murex fulgura dictus).

The Lightning-Stamper, a very scarce *Buccinana prismaticorne*, which cost six guineas.

The *Strombus fusus*, from China.

Three kinds of *Buccinum lamellatum.*

Two large Trumpet-shells of *Aza.*

Two thorny Eastern Woodcock Shells.

The white and brown Marteau, of an enormous size.

Polish Saddle-shells, one of which is seven inches, and in perfect preservation.

The *Pinna Marina*, from the Mediterranean, two feet four inches.

Oriens et Occidens.

Cardium retusum, very scarce.

Eighteen different kinds of *Chiton Magellanicus*. This last is called the Great Shallop.

Chiton Americanus, four feet and a half long, and two feet and a half wide, with very scarce *Pholades*.

The Imperial Harp. M. Paris has a very fine one of the sort.

The *Nautilus parvus papyraceus* (Mart.) the finest existing.

The Orange *Ciprea Aurora*; cost fifty rix-dollars.

The only collection of the kind of *Sinistrio Cochlea*.

The *Voluta Pyrum*, or the *Tsianko*: three inches nine lines. An extremely scarce article.

The *Vis fluvia* (*Buccinum Columna*).

The Purple-shell from Mahon.

The *Helix Trochoides*.

The *Buccinum Zebra* (Muller), four inches and a half.

The *Bulla achatina Linnæi*.

The White Snail-shell striped with Black, called the Ribband, a *Sinistrio*. This cost fifty guineas.

A variety of Prince's Pavilions (*Bulla vesicaria*).

A very scarce kind of *Buccinum virgineum*.

A species of the *Trochis ferrugineus*, &c.

There is also a collection of shells so exceedingly small, that it is difficult to see them with the naked eye; many, indeed, require the assistance of a glass.

Mr. Spengler has also a fine collection of minerals, corals, stones, madrepores, &c. many of which are from Norway, and the Isle of France. These are the only ones of the kind. Amongst a variety of articles there is a piece knitted with silver, from the Konsberg and Norway mines: this is extremely curious. Likewise a Chinese pavilion in ivory, carved with the greatest delicacy and taste; and many other works of the same nature: the whole by Mr. Spengler himself. Part of an elephant's tooth, in which an iron ball had remained, which produced a very extraordinary excrescence of bone in the inside. The whole of this cabinet is certainly very valuable, and curious to see.

The privy-counsellor, Holmskiold, has a very fine cabinet of

natural history, consisting of a good collection of minerals, a great deal of *cornea* silver, a piece of crystal that weighs more than three pounds, with native silver in it, and many other truly valuable articles. The king has bought this cabinet, but is not to have it till after Mr. Holmskiold's decease. This gentleman has begun a work upon moss: the colored engravings with which it is ornamented are perfectly exact and beautiful; and, when the whole is finished, it will be equal to any thing of the kind ever yet published. He also has a work of the same nature in contemplation upon zeolytes. Mr. Holmskiold gave us hopes of having an exact account of this cabinet; we however, were never able to procure it.

Count Molzke's Cabinet consists of natural history, shells, and a collection of pictures. The most remarkable amongst the latter are as follow:—

Saint Peter in Prison, by *Guido*.

Horses going out of a Stable, by *Wouvermans*.

A Landscape, by *Van Huysen*.

A Satyr with Grapes, by *Jordans*.

An old Shoemaker, by *Rickaert*.

A dying Man dictating his Will, by *Poussin*.

Two small Pictures by *Die-rich*, one of which is our Saviour curing the sick.

A Child robbing a Woman asleep, and an old Woman teaching a Child to read.

These two pictures by *Fr. Mieris*.

An old Woman spinning, by *Teniers*.

Old Man reading, by *Ostadt*.

A large Picture, by old *Teniers*, representing a kitchen.

Dead Game, by *Veenix*.

A Horse and Mare, and a Groom leading a Horse to drink, both by *Wouvermans*.

Adam and Eve driven from Paradise, a fine copy from *Vanderverf*; which serves as a companion to the original picture, by *Vanderverf*, of Adam and Eve after their Fall.

A small Picture with Cows, by *P. Poter*.

The Temptation of St. Anthony, by *Breughel*, surnamed *d'Enscr*.

The eating-room is very fine. In the saloon there are some pretty pieces by *Boucher* over the doors.

This palace is one of the four in Frederic-square: it is very handsome, and has a fine view from the terrace*.

Mr. Suhm's Library† is very magnificent, and consists of about sixty thousand volumes. It is said that the manuscripts, which are not included in the above number of volumes, make this library the most valuable of any in Denmark; and it is certainly the most curious receptacle existing for the antient history of the North. The Iceland manuscripts alone form a great collection; and the whole contains not only the copies of all those found elsewhere, but a great number of originals. The manuscripts cost more than the bound books; but it would fill up many pages to give an account of them, which would not be understood by foreigners who are ignorant of the antient Danish language; and there are few who understand it, except some of the learned from Edinburgh. This library grows every day more considerable, from the quantity of new productions which appear. One of the most valuable parts of it is the collection of Greek and Roman antiquities; and we really think that, since *M. de la Valiere's* library has been dispersed into different parts of the world, and *M. de Paulmy's* pillaged, (which we make no doubt has been the case, it having been afterwards sold to the comte d'Artois,) the one we have just described is entitled to hold the first rank amongst the private libraries in Europe.

Those who wish for a collection of Danish medals since Chris-

* The chamberlain *Schestedts*, and *Mr. Tonderlund*, have cabinets of insects, very worthy of notice. They are, indeed, so interesting, that professor *Fabricius*, one of the most learned naturalists in Europe, made an annual visit to Copenhagen, purposely to examine them.

† This library has been purchased by his Majesty, since the demise of *Mr. Suhm*.

tian I., may procure them at the Cabinet of Medals, where the coins are deposited, which they take out at the request of people who desire it, and strike silver (not bronze) medals from them. Every one, weighing three ounces, is sold for six rix-dollars. There are twelve in all, the present king being not amongst the number. The inscription on the reverse is at full length.

Denmark has produced some very learned men in different branches: arts and sciences are cultivated with great energy, and have been brought to as much perfection as can be expected from the state of population and other circumstances.

The name of Tycho Brahe appears foremost on the list of these distinguished persons. This celebrated man flourished in the reign of Frederic II. Born of one of the richest and most illustrious families in the kingdom, he resigned all pretensions to honors and titles to devote himself entirely to science. Astronomy became his principal study. Having brought astronomical instruments to a great degree of perfection, he made observations on the heavens with an accuracy before entirely unknown; and succeeded in tracing on the globe the exact position of the fixed stars. His genius took a still higher flight; he made the most luminous discoveries, and pointed out the path afterwards trod by Kepler and Sir Isaac Newton. Tycho Brahe remained a long time in a small island called When, situated in the Sound, between Zealand and Skone, and which was ceded by Denmark to Sweden in 1660. Here he gave himself up entirely to meditation, and his different occupations; and erected an edifice, seventy-five feet high, surmounted by two towers. This was his observatory, to which he gave the name of *Uraniborg*, or *Castle of the Heavens*. It contained not only astronomical instruments, but a printing-press and a chemical laboratory. This building was in a garden, and a few peasants' huts enlivened the neigh-

bourhood. Frederic II. had bestowed the island of Hven on Tycho Brahe for his life, and this philosopher was delighted with his residence; but he became the victim of jealousy and intrigue, being not only banished from his retreat, but from Denmark, and forced to seek an asylum in a foreign land. *Uraniborg* then became entirely neglected, and nothing now remains but a heap of stones. The feeling traveler must ever contemplate these ruins with sentiments of respect, and perceive in his mind's eye the shade of this great man wandering about a spot so beloved, from which he was thus torn so cruelly for ever.

Longomontanus, or Longomontan, followed the steps of Tycho Brahe. He published some tables of the motion of the planets, which gained him a distinguished reputation. These are known by the name of *Tabulæ Danicæ*. He also gave directions for building the observatory erected by Christian IV., in Copenhagen. The reign of this prince is a great epoch in the literary history of Denmark. Christian was perfectly aware of the value of science, and cultivated it himself. He established four new professors' chairs at the University of Copenhagen; made a botanical garden, formed a considerable library; and erected the above-mentioned observatory. The professors of the University were admitted at his table, and he frequently conversed with them. Genius had opportunities of showing itself, and talents were encouraged under the auspices of this enlightened sovereign, and learned men were brought forward, whose scientific labors contributed to the progress of the human understanding.

Gaspard Bartholin, by the rational study of anatomy, brought the science of physic to a great degree of perfection. After traveling over the greatest part of Europe, he wrote many different works, amongst which the most distinguished are his *Ana-*

tomical Institutions. He left six sons, whom he instructed in the profession, which he himself had rendered so famous. Thomas Bartholin was still superior to his father; he first discovered the lymphatic vessels, and made accurate observations on the circulation of the blood, the thoracic passage, and many other parts of the human body. To preserve these observations, and those he had heard from others from oblivion, he published the work intitled, *Acta Medica Hafniensia*.

Wormius gained great reputation from the variety of his knowledge: he discovered six bones in the human skull, which bear his name; he formed a cabinet of natural history, and collected a great number of antient monuments, on which he published memoirs remarkable for deep erudition.

Borrichius studied chemistry, and wrote a very learned book on the progress made by the Egyptians in that science.

Nicholas Stetonis discovered the external duct through which the saliva flows, with several other vessels of the mouth; he also made some novel observations on the muscles and glands.

Sperling taught botany, and encouraged a taste for that study.

Laurenberg and Meier were great mathematicians, and published some valuable maps.

Haitfeld was the first who wrote a complete history of antient and modern Denmark.

Meursius was sent for from Leyden, and appointed historiographer of Denmark: he accordingly wrote on the history of that kingdom, and also gave much of his time to the study of Grecian antiquities. A fine edition of all his works, in ten folio volumes, was published at Florence.

Picard being sent into Denmark, by Lewis XIV., to collect and verify the observations made by Tycho Brahe, met with Rocmer at Copenhagen, a man of most distinguished merit,

who assisted the French astronomer in his researches, and accompanied him to France, where his talents were properly appreciated. Cassini frequently permitted him to share his labors, the academy of sciences received him as a member, and Lewis XIV. appointed him mathematical master to the first dauphin. On his return to Denmark, he obtained several important places; and it is to this learned man that posterity is indebted for the invention of a level, and the discovery of the progressive motion of light, which he deduced from his observations on the satellites of Jupiter. In the reign of Christian V., he was placed at the head of the police at Copenhagen, when he made a reform in the weights and measures.

Torſæus, the cotemporary of Roemer, was born in Norway. He employed much learning in ascertaining the chronology of the antient history of the North, and in rectifying errors adopted through national prejudices, and the inaccuracy of different historians. According to the hypothesis laid down in his *Historia Norvegica*, Odin was established in Scandinavia, nearly seventy years before the Christian æra, and divided his conquests amongst his different children.

Horrebow, Gram, and Holberg, appeared in the beginning of the eighteenth century. The former was a disciple of Roemer, whom he assisted latterly in his laborious occupations; he also supported the reputation of the observatory at Copenhagen, and made many curious observations, the result of which tended greatly to the advancement of astronomy.

Gram acquired fame by great erudition, and profound and ingenious criticism. He threw light upon a variety of historical and literary facts; and his notes upon Meursius's *History of Denmark*, are a fund of interesting knowledge of every description.

Holberg, a native of Norway, though in very confined circumstances, traveled over the greatest part of Europe, and fixed his residence at last at Copenhagen. Possessed of very superior talents, and expressing his ideas with peculiar facility, he published a variety of works on different subjects. He wrote upon history, geography, and philosophy; he also tried his genius in the satirical and burlesque style, but he owes his reputation principally to his comedies; and being appointed to write for the Danish theatre, he began his career by a piece called the *Political Pewterer*, which had the most brilliant success. In it he has pointed out in the pleasantest manner the absurdity of artificers reasoning upon politics. The merit of this piece was, however, local; and though applauded in Denmark, would have been but little interesting elsewhere. The *Journeywoman*, *Masquerade*, and *Henry and Pernilla*, next succeeded. These were the three best productions of this author, displaying throughout the whole, the comic genius with which he was endowed by nature. Led on by repeated success, Holberg gave a variety of pieces, to the composition of which he had paid very little attention, several being much below mediocrity. It is very apparent, on reading the theatrical works of this fruitful author, that he had been introduced at too late a period into the kind of society capable of refining his taste, and forming his judgement. Amongst his various works, the principal are, *The History of Denmark*, *The Political State of Denmark and Norway*, and *The Travels of Klim into the Subterraneous World*. This latter is a satire upon the principal nations in Europe. Though the reputation of Holberg has been diminished for some time past, he certainly must always deserve the esteem and gratitude of his countrymen, being the first who gave an idea of the genius of the Danish tongue, and

who diffused a taste for philosophy and literature throughout that kingdom.

From the middle of the eighteenth century to the present moment, many circumstances have combined to invigorate talents, and to extend the field of letters and science. Several men of distinguished merit have been enabled by government to undertake travels and voyages to increase knowlege, and to make useful discoveries. Learned and literary societies have been formed; public libraries have been considerably augmented; money being in general less scarce, a taste for reading and information of different kinds has spread through all ranks of people; the demand for books being more frequent, the sellers are encouraged to extend that branch of commerce; journals are increased, and news and knowlege are in constant circulation; numerous reforms having taken place in the government, and great questions relative to political œconomy, and to legislation, have been discussed; many prudent and enlightened men have availed themselves of the principles adopted for the liberty of the press, to open the mind to philosophical ideas, to correct errors, and to form the understanding.

In the beginning of the above-mentioned period, Langebeck, Pontoppidan, Carstens, and Suhm, have thrown a fresh light on history, geography, and the antiquities of the North: Œder, Müller, and Brunich, have written on natural history. Vinsløw, Saxdorph, and Abildgaard, have made most important observations on the study of physic; Tyge Rothe, and Kofod Ancher, have published some learned works on the laws and constitution of the Northern nations; Schœning and Stroem, natives of Norway, have given an account of the civil and natural history of their country; Erichsen and Magnœus, Icelanders, have greatly distinguished themselves by their deep erudition; Sneedorf and

Skytte, are authors of several interesting productions on moral and political sciences; and Esward, Vessel, and Tulin, may be regarded as the fathers of Danish poetry: the two last were born in Norway.

The following are particularly distinguished at present: Bugge, for astronomy; Læwencœrn and Morville, for mathematics and geography; Wad, Fabricius, Hauch, for natural history and natural philosophy; Tode, Vinslœwet, and Viborg, for physic; Eggers and Schlegel, for œconomical and political sciences; Zœga, Moldenhauer, Nyerup, Munter, and Adler, for erudition and criticism; Rahbeck, Schmid, and Pram, cultivate literature most successfully; Baggesen, Thaarup, Scidlitz, Olsen, and several others, have gathered laurels in the field of poetry: and their work sprove to the attentive reader that the Danish muses succeed particularly in depicting nature, and in sentimental expressions.

In Nyerup's description of Copenhagen, there is a list of the periodical journals and papers which for some time past have appeared in that capital. We will take notice of those which treat on science and literature.

Minerva.—This journal commenced in 1785; it contains memoirs and observations on different political, moral, and legislative subjects: it is remarkable for being written in a philosophical style.

Iris and Hebe.—Much taste is displayed in this collection, containing moral and literary observations, with sometimes translations from the antients.

A Journal of Politics, Natural History, and the Knowledge of Mankind.—The greatest part of these essays are translated from the German and other foreign languages.

Magazine of Politics and Natural Philosophy.—Generally translated from the German.

Library of Natural Philosophy, Physic, and Œconomy.—Likewise a collection of translations.

Literary Newspaper of Copenhagen.—This journal is compiled with great accuracy, taste, and discernment.

Gazette of Trade and different Branches of Industry.—The public prize this paper extremely, as it is full of instructive articles.

Journals are not confined to Copenhagen; that published at Christiana in Norway is generally esteemed: it is intitled *Topographical Journal of Norway*.

There are fourteen or fifteen booksellers in Copenhagen; five or six of whom trade to a great amount in foreign publications. The printing presses are about seventeen*; but a thousand circumstances prevent these from coming to any great degree of perfection: workmanship is very dear, and the greatest part of the paper and types come from abroad. Booksellers and printing-presses are also established in most other towns; but these are carried on, as yet, with very little spirit.

* There were only fourteen in 1791.

CHAP. XI.

*A slight Sketch of the History of Denmark, from the Year
1660.*

DENMARK holds only a second rank amongst the powers of Europe; though, perhaps, she possesses sufficient means to make her of some weight in the political scale:—but, for some years past, the government has preferred (and very properly) preserving an absolute neutrality,* which has been extremely advantageous both to commerce and population. The last object is particularly important; for the whole extent of the Danish dominions does not contain more than two millions of people arrived at the age of maturity.

This country, as indeed is the case with all others in the same latitude, is in want of a variety of articles which never can be produced in so cold a climate: that, however, is much less severe than in Sweden and the northern parts of Russia. The reader will observe, that we now only speak of Denmark, properly so

* On a late occasion, when it was impossible to preserve this neutrality, Denmark does not appear to have played the most prudent part. What will be the event, time alone can discover! but the present appearance of things, promises nothing very favorable to that country.

called, without including Norway, and still less Iceland, which is a distant possession so near the Pole that it is scarcely habitable.

As we have in the preceding chapters given a particular and accurate account of the army, fleet, finances, commerce, &c. of Denmark, we shall conclude this work by tracing a slight and rapid sketch of the different reigns of the Danish monarchs since the year 1660; an epoch when the form of government was so entirely changed, that we think it unnecessary to go any further back into our history of this country.

FREDERIC THE THIRD

in 1660 had reigned twelve years,* and his power was limited by the two first orders of the state, particularly by the nobles, who, not satisfied with enslaving their king, oppressed and degraded the people. These different circumstances made a change of government absolutely necessary; but no one could possibly foresee when it would take place. The preceding wars with Sweden had reduced Denmark to the lowest ebb, and

* The Kings of Denmark make use of the following title in all public acts:—*N. N. by the grace of God, King of Denmark, Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals, Duke of Schleswig, Holstein, Stormar and Ditmarsch, Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.* The king's eldest son is stiled Prince Royal, the other children have the title of hereditary Prince or Princess. The arms of Denmark are, three lions; and those of Norway only one. To these are added the arms of each Dutchy, and likewise the three crowns which also make part of the arms of Sweden. The kings of this country allege, that the said three crowns belong exclusively to them, and that, previous to the union of Calmar. This pretension has occasioned frequent combats and negotiations, the result of which has been, that the kings of Denmark are suffered to bear the three crowns in their arms, on condition of their claiming no right of possession on that account.

every thing seemed to threaten her total ruin. A convocation of the states-general of the kingdom appeared to the king the only possible method of remedying, at least in some degree, such complicated evils.

The diet was then convened, and assembled at Copenhagen on the 8th of September, 1660.* Mr. Mallet, in his History of Denmark, has given the most exact account of this celebrated diet, which so completely changed the nature of the Danish government: we will therefore refer our readers to his work, our plan only permitting us to enter into the general circumstances necessary to understand this great event.

None of the orders of the state arrived at the diet, in the smallest degree disposed to promote either tranquillity or the public good. The nobles, proud of the great privileges they had contrived to enjoy, were only solicitous to preserve them entire; nay, perhaps to increase them. The clergy, who had for some time seen their power daily diminishing, and were at last become dependent upon the great, only wished to regain their former influence; whilst the burgesses, naturally jealous of the nobles, became still more so, since the latter had extended the bounds of their power:—their continual vexations appeared more cruel, and difficult to support, because, during the last siege, the capital owed its preservation, in a very great degree, to the activity

* Mr. Catteau has given an elegant description of this diet, in the second chapter of the first volume of his *Tableau des Etats Danois*; which chapter treats on the Form of Government. There has also been lately published, another more considerable work on the Revolution of 1660. This is in French, and has the following title:—*Histoire de la Révolution de Dannemarc en 1660, par laquelle, l'Autorité monarchique devint illimitée dans ce Pays, et la Couronne d'Elective qu'elle étoit auparavant, devint héréditaire. Traduit de l'Allemand de Spittber par Soulange Artaud de la Société Royale des Sciences de Gottingue, et de la Société Philotechnique de Paris. Metz.*

Collignon, An. 13, 1805.

of the burgesses, who therefore thought they had a right to be ranked, in the assembly of the states, according to the risks they had run in the defence of their country. The nobles, on the other side, were not a little jealous of the privileges obtained by the burgesses, which, though truly deserved, they regarded as infringing upon them. The nobles therefore made a separate party, opposed to the two other orders whose interests were the same. As to the peasants, they were reduced to absolute servitude, and were no longer considered in a state of which they had formerly composed one of the orders, and held that rank to which they were so justly entitled both by nature and reason.

The diet began under the most unfavorable auspices; and, whilst it was sitting, the nobles by their conduct exasperated the people to a greater degree than before. This first inspired the two other orders with the idea of taking advantage of an opportunity, which might never happen again, to humble them, and at the same time to deprive them of those absurd privileges which they had so long enjoyed at the expence of the rest of the nation. The burgesses were still under arms, a part of the regular troops called in to defend Copenhagen were still in that city, and they were all entirely devoted to the king, who was not formed by nature for the part he was called upon to act in this diet; and he was indeed far from having an idea of the kind.—The clergy and burgesses were, however, determined upon annihilating for ever the aristocracy of the nobles; preferring, with reason, the government of a single master to that of a swarm of tyrants perpetuated from generation to generation, and whose pretensions grew every day more extravagant. They therefore resolved to throw themselves into the arms of their sovereign, to invest him with absolute authority, and to make

his throne hereditary. They then presented the act containing their intentions to the nobles; who refused to sign it, on pretence that an affair of such great importance required the maturest examination: upon which the clergy and commons went immediately to the palace, without the nobles, and acquainted the king with their resolutions in his favor. The nobles finding all resistance useless, and fearing the resentment of the people, joined the other orders, and took the new oath at the same time; which ceremony was performed with the greatest pomp and magnificence. Frederic the Third became, from that memorable day, (18th of October 1660,) not only an hereditary but an absolute prince.

The following articles are extracts from the Royal Law, which, at this present time, composes the Danish constitution, and which will certainly give a clearer idea of the degree of power possessed by the kings of Denmark, than any thing we could say upon the subject. This law bears date the 14th of November 1665.

“ Article the 2d.—The hereditary kings of Denmark and of Norway shall be regarded by their subjects (and shall really be so) as their only supreme chief upon earth. They shall be above all human laws; and, in civil and ecclesiastical affairs, they shall acknowledge no other judge or superior than God alone.

“ Articles 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th.—The king may interpret the laws at pleasure, and may also either repeal, add, or derogate from them. He may abolish those laws which himself or his predecessors have made, and grant exemptions to all those whom he thinks proper to free from the necessity of obeying them. He may give and take away places of every kind, according to his will and pleasure, and name ministers and officers

of every rank. He alone has the right of disposing of the armed forces of the kingdom, and of declaring war against whom and at what time he pleases. He likewise shall have the supreme jurisdiction over all the ecclesiastics, shall regulate rites and ceremonies, convene councils and synods, and end the sessions:—in short, he shall unite in his own person all sovereign rights, of whatsoever nature they may be.

“ Article 17th.—The king shall not be held either to take an oath, or any other engagement, by whatever name it may be called ; or to make either a verbal or written promise to any person whatsoever ; since in his quality of free and absolute monarch, his subjects can never bind him by any oath, nor prescribe to him any conditions which tend to limit that authority.

“ Article 26th.— All we have hitherto said of the eminent power of the sovereignty, with any thing more which has not yet been expressly and specially announced, shall be comprised and included in the exact explanation we are going to give of our intentions in this particular. The King of Denmark and of Norway shall be an hereditary monarch invested with the highest degree of authority, so that every thing which can be possibly either said or written to the advantage of an hereditary Christian prince shall be understood in the most favorable sense for the hereditary King of Denmark and of Norway. And as experience, and the fatal examples of other countries, have shown us the danger of taking advantage of the clemency and sincerity of kings and princes in order to diminish their authority, (which has been artfully done by different persons, and even by those amongst their servants in whom they placed the greatest confidence, to the great detriment of public affairs and the royal interest ; so that it has been truly to be wished, in

different places, that kings and princes had attended better to the preservation of their authority,) We, in the most serious manner, command our successors, the hereditary and absolute kings of Denmark and Norway, to take the most particular care to defend their hereditary rights and unlimited power, without suffering any the smallest approaches towards striking at that power; and we recommend them to keep it whole and entire, as we have established it in this Royal Law, in order to transmit it for ever, from generation to generation, to our descendants. And, that our will and pleasure may be still more solid and lasting, we declare, that if any one, of whatsoever rank, shall dare to do, or to obtain, any thing which in the smallest degree shall be contrary to the absolute authority of the king, and of his monarchical power, it shall, if thus granted or obtained, be regarded as void and of no effect. Those also who have had the art to obtain such concessions shall be punished as traitors, and as persons who have violated in the most criminal manner the supreme, absolute, and monarchical power of the king."

We will beg our readers to examine the contents of the above articles, and they will readily agree that there is no country in the world where despotism is more firmly established: yet Denmark has been governed by this fundamental law for more than a hundred and thirty years, and has hitherto had no reason to repent of having invested her kings with absolute power; which is a sufficient proof that a despotic government is not bad in itself, and that tyrants alone can make it so.

Frederic the Third died in 1670, after a reign of twenty-two years. He enjoyed, during the last ten, that sovereign power which was decreed him both freely and unanimously by his people; though, indeed, the consent of the nobles cannot be said

to have been voluntary. But their conduct since that period, and the silence they have preserved, are proofs that their refusal was not the effect of any great motive, but merely of their own personal interest.

This prince was beloved by his people, and his loss sincerely regretted. He had many great qualities:—he was good in every sense of the word, (though perhaps a little weak,) prudent, generous, brave, and faithful to his engagements. He likewise protected the arts and sciences; and was, in short, truly worthy of the love of his subjects and the esteem of Europe. He was succeeded by his son

CHRISTIAN THE FIFTH,

who mounted the throne at the age of twenty-three years, and immediately applied himself to the increase of commerce, which he encouraged by taking off taxes, and establishing different companies. In 1671 he created counts and barons, and parceled out lands into counties and baronies. If such titles had ever existed in former times, they had long since fallen into disuse.*

* Christian V., by letters patent, raised the lands of the nobles into counties and baronies, which formed a new kind of Fief. These possessions are reputed to devolve to the king in default of heirs'male; but this right has never been exercised, and the vacant Fiefs have always been conferred on other noble families. The counties and baronies are inalienable, and even in cases of high treason, the only ones when they can be forfeited by the proprietor, they always devolve to the next male heir. The counts are styled *illustrious and high lords*, and the barons *illustrious lords*. The first have the right of making use of a canopy, and their younger sons have the title of barons, though they are not possessed of baronies. Besides the above-mentioned counts and barons, there are other families bearing the same titles, as a mere personal distinction: but which also descend to all their children. The Fiefs enjoy great territorial immunities, excepting those lately conferred, which have been endowed with greater precaution, but the titular prerogatives are equally the same for all.

In the mean time the peace of the northern powers appeared likely to be disturbed. The Dukes of Holstein Gottorp, and

The following is a List of these Fiefs.

COUNTIES.

Names.	Situated in	Date of the Investiture
Luarwigen	Norway	1671
Friesenburg	Jutland	1672
Langeland	Langeland	1672
Wedelsberg	Funen	1677
Schackenburg	Jutland	1676
Sampsoe	Sampsoe	1677
Tarlsherg	Norway	1684
Reventlau	Sleswick	1685
Holstenburg	Zealand	1708
Knuthenburg	Laaland	1714
Gyldensteen	Funen	1720
Scheel	Jutland	1725
Christiansaede	Laaland	1729
Christiansholm	Laaland	1734
Ledreburg	Zealand	1746
Bregentved	Zealand	1750
Hvedholm	Funen	1797

BARONIES.

Brahe-Trolleberg	Funen	1672
Holckenhaven	Funen	1672
Rosenstein	Jutland	1672
Wintersburg	Laaland	1674
Wilhamsburg	Jutland	1673
Kieruch	Funen	1676
Einseldenburg	Funen	1676
Marsilhsburg	Jutland	1680
Schreienburg	Funen	1680
Lindenburg	Jutland	1681
Tuelling	Laaland	1721
Christiansdal	Laaland	1743
Conradsburg	Zealand	1743
Rosenlun	Zealand	1748
Villestap	Jutland	1757

Holstein Plœn, disputed the succession of Oldenbourg. Sweden had declared herself for the first of these princes, and Denmark for the second. Christian the Fifth therefore made use of this slight pretence to attack Charles the Eleventh both by sea and land. Holland embraced the cause of Denmark, and to such an increase of forces must be attributed the misfortunes of Sweden by sea. But by land the case was very different; for the Danes lost the battle of Land, in the province of Skone, in 1676, and that of Landskrona the following year. These battles were very bloody. The two kings headed their respective troops, and were equally great, both as generals and as soldiers.

Holland having abandoned her ally, Christian the Fifth, in 1678, the latter thought it prudent to put his cause into the hands of Lewis the Fourteen, who openly protected Sweden, and insisted upon ample satisfaction being given to that country. Denmark was therefore obliged to restore all her conquests, and peace was agreed upon in September 1670. The treaties of Roschild, Copenhagen, and Westphalia were renewed in all their original purity. And this peace (known by the name of the Peace of Nimègue) was very honorable for Charles the Eleventh; though, to say the truth, he owed it entirely to the mediation of Lewis the Fourteenth.

Christian renewed the order of Dannebrog, which is the second of the kingdom, in 1671; and in 1693 he published the code which bears his name, and which is since become the law of Denmark.

This prince died in 1699, aged fifty-four years. His death was the consequence of a wound he received the year before, whilst hunting the stag. Though he left his kingdom in an exhausted state, he was universally regretted. He had very little

taste for arts and sciences ; but his goodness, his personal qualities, and the uprightness of his intentions, were allowed by every one. His son succeeded to the crown.

FREDERIC THE FOURTH

was scarcely proclaimed king, before he endeavoured to reduce the Duke of Holstein Gottorp to such a line of conduct as he thought he had a right to expect from him. That prince had been reinstated in all his rights by the treaty of 1679 ; but the king had not forgotten that his father's consent upon this occasion had in some degree been extorted from him : he therefore made the greatest preparations, both by sea and land, in order to retake what his predecessor had been thus constrained to yield up. He formed an alliance with the czar Peter the First, in hopes of entirely crushing the young King of Sweden ; but they were deceived in their expectations, for in six weeks' time Charles the Twelfth forced Frederic to sign the peace of Travendal, and to withdraw himself from a coalition which was entirely founded upon ambition and injustice.

Denmark enjoyed the blessings of peace till 1709, when the battle of Pultowa inspired Frederic with new hopes of reconquering the province of Skone, which, from the distress of Sweden at that moment, he looked upon as an easy conquest. He did indeed succeed in taking different towns ; but, on the tenth of March 1710, General Steinboeck gained a complete victory over the Danish army near Helsinburg, which was retaken by the Swedes. The same general bent the Danes a second time near Gadesbusch, in 1712 : but the following year Fortune forsook him, and he was obliged, with his whole army, to surrender at

discretion. This war lasted more than ten years; but at last peace was signed in 1720 with Frederic the First, the new King of Sweden.

The city of Copenhagen was infected by the plague in 1711, which carried off more than twenty thousand of it's inhabitants; and in 1728 it was almost totally destroyed by fire, to which circumstance is owing the present beauty of this town.—Frederic the Fourth departed this life in 1730, aged fifty-nine years. He was deservedly regretted by his people, and his memory will ever be respected; for he was equally great in peace as in war; and the useful establishments with which he has enriched his country will be eternal proofs of his enlightened genius, and his love for the arts and sciences.

CHRISTIAN THE SIXTH

succeeded his father, and in 1736 purchased the island of Santa Cruz, in the Carribee Sea, of the French. This possession is in itself of small importance, but it greatly facilitates the trade of Denmark, to which it gives fresh vigor. Upon the death of Frederic, King of Sweden, Christian the Sixth entered the lists, and proposed his son as successor to the vacant throne; but the party devoted to Russia, who protected the bishop of Lubeck, prevailed over Christian, in whose reign no very remarkable events took place. He died in 1746, leaving behind him a debt of many millions of French livres, which he contracted by his love of show and magnificence, and by building a variety of palaces. He was religious, regular in his conduct, and a lover of peace, which he constantly preserved and regarded as the greatest blessing he could confer upon his people. His son,

FREDERIC THE FIFTH,

succeeded him; but the peace which Denmark had so long enjoyed was upon the point of being disturbed. The Duke of Holstein Gottorp, become Emperor of Russia by the death of Elizabeth, was determined to revive his antient claim to the dutchy of Holstein, which Denmark had possessed for many years, but which neither he nor his ancestors had given up the hopes of one day regaining. Happily for Frederic, the premature death of Peter the Third (which took place eight days after he was dethroned) destroyed this project; and his successor, Catharine the Second, gave up, in the most formal manner, all right to the dutchies of Sleswick and Holstein, in which she was joined by her son, the grand-duke of Russia; but the definitive treaty could not take place before 1773, when the grand-duke's majority enabled him to ratify this engagement. Frederic the Fifth died in 1766, and left his crown to his son,

CHRISTIAN THE SEVENTH.

We shall slightly pass over the reign of this prince, who, after the great event of 1774, which deprived the queen Matilda of her liberty, and brought Struensee and Brandt to the scaffold, was in a state of perfect nullity. The particulars of this great affair are too well known to make it necessary for us to enter upon the subject: we shall only say, that the conduct pursued by the court of Denmark does not appear to us entirely blameless; and the firmness displayed by Mr. Keith, at that time English minister at Copenhagen, may, perhaps, have saved it from the commission of a crime which would have entailed eternal shame upon the perpetrators of it. However, let the case

be what it will, the melancholy situation of his majesty bore date from this event;—but, as we know not exactly to what it ought to be attributed, we will not repeat what has been said (perhaps unjustly) upon this subject. From that time to the year 1784, the kingdom was governed by the ministers alone; but the Prince Royal then thought himself qualified to throw off the restraint of his guardians, and to take the reins of government into his own hands, since his father was no longer in a situation to hold them himself. The spirited and courageous conduct of this young prince met with the success it deserved, and he from that time to the death of his father, possessed sovereign authority under the title of Crown Prince. We have frequently heard his praises, and the Danes think themselves happy in such a master. Such, indeed, has been his conduct, that we may venture to affirm Frederic the Sixth will give his people no reason to repent the having invested one of his ancestors with absolute power.

Unfortunately for this prince, the death of his father has happened at a most unfavorable moment for those sovereigns whose virtues are merely pacific and domestic; and who can tell but that He also may add to the number of those, who, with the best intentions possible, have drawn themselves and their people into the most fatal predicament?

CHAP. XII.

Value of Danish Weights and Measures.

Weights.

Hellers (the number contained in a pound)	256
Pfennings	128
Quintins	64
Loths	16
A pound <i>pfund</i>	1
A bismerpund (pounds)	12
A lispund	16
A vaag or vog	36
A centner or quintal	100
A schippfund	320
A last used in trade	5200

A mark, commercial weight, answers to seven ounces fifteen and a half gros and ten grains and one-third French poids de marc.

According to a royal edict, the commercial weight ought to be $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. heavier than that of silver and gold; but the latter is only $5\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. lighter than the former.

Measures for Solids.

	Value in the Country.
Ton or tonnen	1
Halz tonder (the number in a tun)	2
Fierdinger	4
Skiepper or oltinger	8
Fierdingkar	32

Computation Measures.

	Pieces.		Pieces.
The great hundred	120	Worf	15
Schock	60	Dozen	12
Zimer	40	Deker	10
Inées	30		

A last of Spanish salt and one of coal-stone are eighteen barrels, each of which is 176 pottes.

A last of French salt and one of lime are eighteen barrels, each of 144 pottes.

Liquid Measures.

	Value in the Country.	French cubic Inches.
Pœles (the number in an awme)	620	12
Pottes	155	$48\frac{1}{2}$
Kanne or kande	$77\frac{1}{2}$	$95\frac{1}{2}$
Stubgens	40	1887
Anker	4	7548
Awme	1	
Stückfat	$7\frac{1}{2}$	

A tun, or fuder, contains two pipes, five oxhofts, or hogsheds, or six awines.

	Pottes.	French Cubic Inches.
A barrel of beer <i>al tander</i>	136	6624
A tun of oil	136	6624
A tun of pitch and tar	120	5844

A last of oil, butter, herrings, and other fat articles, is twelve beer barrels, each of which ought to weigh fourteen lispunds, or 214 pounds neat weight of flour, butter, blubber, soot, soap, salt-meat, &c.

A Norway barrel of pitch and tar, 120 pottes.

Long Measure, Ell Measure, Land Measure, and Distances.

	Value in the Country.	
Quarters (the number in a foot)	2	
Inch <i>Fom</i>	12	
Line <i>Straa</i>	144	Length in French Lines.
Foot <i>Foot</i>	1	139
Ell <i>Allen</i> (feet)	2	278
Faün, Toise, Fathom	6	834
Ruthe or Perch	10	1391
		French feet.
Mile, length in Ells	12,000	23,188
		Square feet.
Pflüge		167,296

Measures according to which the Country People pay an annual Tribute, and which are used for dividing Land.

Tonde-hart-korn	1
Skiepper-hart-korn (number contained in the first)	8
Fierdingkar	32
Album	96
Penge-hart-korn	384

Tonde-hart-korn is a piece of ground of 28,000 square ells, in which two tuns of corn may be sown. In proportion to the badness of the ground, the person is allowed sometimes 35,000, sometimes 70,000, and even 168,000 square ells in extent.

Observations upon the different Weights and Measures made use of at Elsineur.

A last in that place is reckoned equal to a Dutch one; and a pound and quintal of all countries out of the Baltic, whatever difference there may be, are received at Elsineur upon the same footing as the Danish pound or quintal. This is disadvantageous to the places where the pound and quintal are less; but these are very few in number.

Lasts of grain are received as a Dutch last, unless it is specified in the bill of lading what last is employed.

A last of salt, whatever may be the country from whence it comes, is reckoned the same (whether heavier or lighter) as the Amsterdam last; that is, if the last is not specified. There is a tariff where the weights and measures of different countries are valued, according to which an estimation is instantly made of what ought to be paid.

Liquid measures are reckoned upon the same footing as in other countries, viz.

A tun for four hogsheads or twenty-four ankers.

One pipe, two hogsheads, three awmes or twelve ankers.

One puncheon, one and a half hogshhead, two awmes and one-fourth, or nine ankers.

One hogshhead, six ankers or thirty veltes.

One tierce or awme, four ankers or twenty veltes.

One anker, five veltes or Danish pots.

There is a little work, intituled, *A Table of the Duties and Commercial Customs relative to the Passage of the Sound*. This is useful, and tolerably accurate.

Danish Coins.

Golden Coin.	Value in the Country.	Standard.	
	Danish Marks.	Carats.	Grains
Convention new ducat	15	23	
New ducat of 1757	12	21	2
Old ducat from 1714 to 1717		21	2
Antient ducat according to Newton		22	
	Value in Danish Sols.		
Pfenning	$\frac{1}{16}$		
Altin	$\frac{1}{8}$		
Fyke, copper specie	$\frac{1}{2}$		
Danish skelling, Danish sol	1		
Sk. Lubs. Sols Lubs. or Lubec sols	2		
Felt-mark, Danske-mark, Danish-mark	16		
Rix-mark, Kopfstuck	20		
Rix-dorth, Danish orth	24		
Justus index	28		
Mark-stück, mark lubs or double mark	32		
Demi-rix-dollar, half-rix-dollar	48		
Felt, feltche, dollar, scheldal-dollar	64	Deniers.	Grains.
Demi-croon	68	10	
Rix-dollar current	96	9	23
Rix-dollar crown	102	9	21
Rix-dollar specie, crown specie	112	10	12
Croon simple	136		
Rix-dollar or crown, double specie	224	10	9
Double croon	272		

Weight, Standard, and Tale of Gold and Silver.

A mark for the assay of gold is divided into twenty-four carats of twelve grains, and that for the assay of silver into sixteen loths or twenty-four orts, or 256 pfennings, or 4352 essches, precisely the same as the Cologne mark. According to Mr. Tillet, the Copenhagen mark for weighing gold and silver is four-fifths per cent. heavier than the Cologne one: however, this difference in Denmark is only reckoned at half per cent. The mark, Danish weight, according to Mr. Tillet, is seven ounces, five and a half gros, and ten and a half French grains; and that of Cologne (from the same authority) answers, as mentioned above, to seven ounces five gros and eleven grains, French *poids de marc*, which make 4896 Dutch *as*. Wrought silver is at the standard of thirteen loths one-third, or ten deniers.

The proportion between silver and gold in Denmark is as one to fifteen or somewhat more. A ducat at the convention standard, or ducat specie according to the Paris assay, weighs sixty-five grains and $\frac{3}{4}$; those at the standard of twenty-one carats two grains, or ducats current, weigh sixty-two grains according to the same assay. They are at the tale of eighty-six to the mark, with the slight difference of $\frac{13}{17}$, which is lost in the remedy of weight. In 1776, there was a statue for a new coinage of rix-dollars specie, at the tale of nine and a quarter pieces in a mark of pure silver, weighing one loth three orts three pfennings and ten $\frac{1}{17}$ essches. Thirty-five marks Lubs. are reckoned for the mark of pure silver of 4,438 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains of French weight. The rix-dollar crown, according to the Paris assay, weighs 510 grains. The double rix-dollar 1087; demi crown of fine alloy at the standard of eleven deniers weighs, according to Newton, 5025 mites. De-

mi-crown of a baser alloy, at the same standard, is equivalent to 4990 mites. Frederic V.'s triple crown is at the standard of eleven deniers nineteen grains. Frederic V.'s crown at the standard of seven deniers. Pieces of twenty-four, sixteen, twelve, eight, and four skel. have a standard which varies between six deniers fifteen grains and six deniers eighteen grains. Billon specie bring in a revenue to the crown which may be valued at forty-nine per cent. A *rizé* is, in Denmark, a bag containing 15,000 ducats.

Observations.—There is very little gold coin in circulation, rather more silver, and small money current. Paper money is almost always in use, and this is of more or less value according to circumstances; but it is not current in Holstein, where there are bills of a hundred, fifty, ten, five, and one rix-dollar.

At Copenhagen the exchange is generally with Amsterdam, Hamburgh, and London.

One hundred rix-dollars of Amsterdam are worth 118 rix-dollars current; sometimes a little more, sometimes a little less. One hundred rix-dollars banco of Hamburgh are worth 124 rix-dollars current. Five rix-dollars current are worth one pound sterling.

END OF VOL. I.

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INTRODUCTION.

TO convey information ought to be the principal object of every author, but that has been almost entirely superseded by the desire of pleasing. Most people love to be amused, whilst few are anxious for instruction: we, however, will openly avow, that whatever may be the censure passed on those who really seek to be informed, our motive for traveling was, the hope of attaining knowledge, and, our only inducement for publishing our travels, our wish of being useful to others.

Before we enter into any particulars, relative to the present work, we think it a duty to acknowledge the kindness of those learned men and artists in Hamburgh, Denmark, and Sweden, who were not only obliging enough to show us their cabinets and workshops, but also to give themselves the trouble of revising the different articles we had written on natural history, manufactories, pictures, medals, public libraries, &c. Some of these articles, indeed, were dictated by themselves; and so much do we respect their information, that we have not changed the smallest particular, though, perhaps, some alterations might have been made, and very probably for the better.

Our thanks are likewise due to different members of the diplomatic

body at Hamburg, Copenhagen, and Stockholm, to whom we owe several articles, which, without their assistance, we should have found it almost impossible to procure, viz. the tables of commerce and finances, with the land and sea establishments. We cannot say how far we may venture to profit by the great goodness of a Monarch*, who, knowing we intended to publish our travels, authorised us to insert many anecdotes never before printed, and which throw a strong light on various points of history, which the interested parties at the time had carefully concealed from the public eye. As for those objects which fell under our personal inspection, we will vouch for the accuracy of the descriptions, as they were all written on the spot. The errors committed by several different travelers, which we have mentioned in this work, must certainly have proceeded either from an implicit belief in the relations of others, or from trusting too much to their own memory.

The rapid sketch we have given of Hamburg, the Hanseatic League, and the reigns of the late Kings of Denmark and Sweden, will, we flatter ourselves, be agreeable to our readers, and likewise serve as a prelude to a more complete knowledge of the countries we are about to describe.

That class of readers who travel only in their own libraries, and who are certainly the most numerous, will, we doubt not, regard as useless, (probably as tedious), several of those particulars, the want of which are severely felt by travelers on a hundred different occasions, who, from having no accurate itinerary of the country, frequently find themselves in unpleasant, and even dangerous situations. They certainly then have reason to exclaim against the generality of travel writers, who speak upon every subject but that which is most necessary.

* Gustavus III.

We have avoided as much as possible employing technical terms in our descriptions of manufactories, workshops, &c. &c. few of our readers being sufficiently conversant with such subjects to make them either interesting or intelligible.

However incomplete the Swedish vocabulary may appear, we have found a list of words of that nature particularly useful in countries where we were ignorant of the language. The Danish and Swedish tongues being very similar, we thought it needless to publish more than one. We have preferred dividing this work into chapters, believing it to be the *best and speediest* method of pointing out to the reader the different subjects of which it treats: it will also enable the curious in natural history, commerce, &c. to discover the most interesting passages with the greater facility.

Complaints have been frequently made by travelers against the English Literature, for not being sufficiently communicative of their knowledge to foreigners. The Chevalier de Boisgelin, however, has every reason to declare the contrary, having never received more polite attentions in any part of the world than from Lord Spencer, Sir Joseph Banks, Sir Edward Winnington, Sir George Colebrooke, Sir Charles Blagdon, Colonel Johns, Messrs. Townley, Symons, Knight, Garthshore, Rev. Mr. Tooke, &c. Sir Joseph Banks's library is undoubtedly the receptacle of every thing curious relative to the history of the four quarters of the globe; the librarian, (Mr. Dryander, a Swede), has always kindly assisted the Chevalier de Boisgelin, in his literary researches. Dr. Taylor, Messrs. Planta, Bernard, and Ochéda, have also been extremely obliging. He has always had free access to the British Museum, King's Library, &c.; and, in his excursions to Cambridge, Oxford, and Edinburgh, he was equally permitted to visit the libraries of the different Universities, and to consult whatever books he thought

proper. After having acknowledged his obligations to the Literati of this country, he cannot forbear adding, that those who have every claim to be one day ranked amongst them, have been likewise very obliging. Mr. Parry, (son of the celebrated physician of that name), a young man of the most promising genius, and whose taste for drawing is universally admired, has presented the Chevalier with some views of Sweden, which are the more valuable and interesting, from his having taken them immediately on the spot; it is, indeed, greatly to be wished that this gentleman may be induced, at some future period, to communicate to the public his observations on the different countries he has visited.

NAMES
OF THE
PRINCIPAL AUTHORS
WHO HAVE
WRITTEN ON THE HISTORY OF HAMBURGH,
OR GIVEN
THE DESCRIPTION OF THAT CITY;
WITH HISTORICAL NOTES AND CRITICISMS ON THEIR DIFFERENT PUBLICATIONS.

Fabricius (Jo. Al.). His memoirs of Hamburg (*Memoriæ Hamburgenſis*) are much esteemed. They contain the panegyric of the most illustrious Hamburgers, with the history of their lives. They were first published in seven volumes octavo, and afterwards with an additional volume. This last edition appeared in 1745, and was edited by *Evers*, *Fabricius's* son-in-law.

Grichein, (Christian Lud.) has composed the following work: *Die Stadt Hamburg in Ihrem politischen ökonomischen und Sittlichen Zustande.* Schleſe 1759.8.

Habner (John). His Universal Geography, in whatever relates to Germany, is well done: otherwise he is not critically exact; and *D. Vaisſette* maintains, that there are many passages in this work, which makes

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it doubtful whether he was even acquainted with the first principles of the sphere.

Klaseker has published a little Latin work upon *Hamburgh*, which *Büsching* quotes with approbation, intitled *Curæ Geographicae*. Page 117, there is a map of the islands in the Elbe near *Hamburgh*; and page 458, a plan of the city.

Lambecius (Peter), *Origines Hamburgenses ab anno 808 ad annum 1292*; two volumes in quarto, 1652 and 1661; and two volumes in folio, 1706 and 1710. This is a very learned work, very exact, and may be generally depended upon, unless when the love of his country has led him into error. A more particular account shall be given of this learned man, in an article appropriated to such *Hamburgers* as have distinguished themselves in the literary world.

Zeyler, or Zeiller (Martin). His publications on the Geography of Germany, are much esteemed, particularly his *Topography of the States of Brunswick*, and the *Country of Hamburg*, inserted in the thirty-first volume of *Merian*.

Those who wish for more information relative to the historians of *Hamburgh*, may consult the following works. *Muntz* and *Medaillen-Verzugen*, printed at *Hamburgh*; and *Plessinger in Vitria o Illust.* book i. tit. 18. page 780. The analysis of the History of *Hamburgh*, published in the Great Geographical Dictionary of *La Martinière* (edition in ten volumes, folio) is so well done, that we have not scrupled to translate it literally, and almost entirely. We have also consulted *Fusching's Geography*, whenever we thought it necessary, with the *Encyclopédie Méthodique Française*, the Universal Dictionary, by Mr. *Robinet*, and even the best written Journals, when any articles appeared relative to *Hamburgh*. There is likewise a modern work, by a very learned physician *, which

* He published a dissertation at *Montpelier*, in 1757, in which he re-establishes the medical opinions of *Hippocrates*. This Mr. de *Buffon* has given to the world, in his usual

merits particular attention ; and which is intitled: *Essai sur la Ville d'Hambourg considérée dans ses Rapports avec la Santé ; ou Lettres sur l'Histoire Medico-Typographique de cette Ville, par J. J. Memuzet, Docteur en Médecine, de plusieurs Universités et Académies de France, un volume, octavo de 120 pages. Hambourg chez Châteauneug Libraire. 1797.*

The pen of this author seems to have been guided by strong observation. He appears to pay the greatest attention to every thing which can throw a light on the knowledge of maladies, and the safest method of treating them. He appears also perfectly well acquainted with whatever might prove prejudicial to the inhabitants of Hamburgh ; with what has been already done, and what may be done to counteract the ill effects of the situation of that town on the health of the people. His first letter sufficiently proves that the constitutions and tempers of men, their good and bad health, greatly depend on the influence of the sun, the air, the na-

beautiful style, and has taken the merit of it to himself. Being chosen in the year 1759, one of the co-operators in the French Encyclopedia, he constantly pursued the same studies, and contributed not a little to the renewal of that simple mode of practice, the effect of experience, which helps nature, and which is termed the Hippocratic manner of practising physic. By this means he succeeded, in a great degree, in exploding that systematical method, abounding in arguments and *drugs* ; as prejudicial to the patient as to the art itself. His principles are made known in the numerous articles relative to the theory and practice of physic, contained in the last volume of that immense dictionary. Amongst which he quoted *Inflammations, Inflammatory Maladies, Observations on Animal Economy, Observations on the Pulse, &c.* His other works are written in the same style, and contribute equally to the welfare of mankind. Such as his *New Treatise on the Pulse — Letter on the Small Pox — On the Effect of Air in contagious Diseases — Essay on the Medico — Typographical History of Paris — Essay on the Method of forming good Physicians, &c.*

This last work, crowned by the Royal Society of Physicians ; and that upon fallow-ground, crowned by the Agricultural Society, sufficiently prove, that the author, by giving up the profits of his pen to the sick, or to poor husbandmen, thought himself sufficiently rewarded by a simple medal, and by the glory of having contributed to the health and happiness of his fellow creatures.

ture of the water, their food, their habits of life, and the divers occupations they pursue. These varying in different countries, it is absolutely necessary that a physician who writes to rise to any eminence in his profession, and to understand it perfectly, should make himself master of all these particulars, in order to judge with some degree of certainty of the state of his patient, and treat him accordingly.

In the two following letters, he enters into a minute examination of the state of *fire* (the sun), *water*, *earth*, and *air*, at *Hamburgh*. And it is from the combined action of these four elements, that principally results (according to his opinion) the influence of climate upon the tempers and constitutions of men.

The author in his fourth letter shows, how far, particular dispositions, different parts of the town, food, manner of living, and employments, have increased or diminished the good or bad effects of the said elements.

He takes notice in his fifth letter, of the government of *Hamburgh*, the morals and customs of that city, which he supposes to be in some degree the result of the climate, and the principle of the physical constitution of the inhabitants.

The sixth letter describes the most prevalent disorders in *Hamburgh*, and the particular circumstances which ought to engage the attention of the physician in these maladies. He agrees with *Montesquien*, in praising a climate which produces gentle manners and good laws, and justly applies the observation to this city, which, however, he cannot allow to possess the same advantages in regard to health.

The author details with pleasure, in the seventh letter, the wisdom and benevolence displayed by the magistrates, and the charity of the inhabitants, in relieving the sick and poor; he does not forget to mention the assistance afforded by medicine; and if now and then some trifling general censure escapes him, it is sufficiently compensated by the just enco-

miums he bestows on the talents, character, and probity of his brother physicians.

The last letter contains his ideas of the method of preventing and relieving sickness; these seem to be well founded, and easily put in execution. It plainly appears, that if he mentions the defects of the former mode of practice, it is not merely because it is hurtful, but because he thinks it very susceptible of amendment. His intentions are therefore good; and though he may possibly sometimes be mistaken, he deserves the thanks of his readers.

This work is not only extremely useful to the physicians of Hamburg, but is so written as to interest readers in general; and more particularly the inhabitants of this city, as it points out to them many essential observations, and praises their manners, morals, characters, and government. The fair sex especially ought to be flattered by the just encomiums he bestows on their virtue and agreeable qualifications, and the useful advice he gives them relative to these two articles. It also furnishes many useful hints to foreigners residing in Hamburg, and to the neighbouring countries: indeed every country may improve from the perusal of a book, which is an excellent model for all practitioners in medicine.

Dr. Hesse's History of Hamburg is, without exception, the best, which has been written on that city. It is greatly to be regretted, that it has not yet been translated from the German.

Baron Voght's letter is too interesting not to be mentioned. It was published in England with the following title: *Account of the Institution at Hamburg for the Employment and Support of the Poor since the Year 1788, in a Letter to some Friends of the Poor of Great-Britain.*

This publication is so well known in England, that it is unnecessary to speak more particularly of its contents: but the same author, under the name of the *Directors of the Establishments for the Poor at Hamburg*, has since given some very interesting details of the different parts

of the administration of institutions of this nature. Count Rumford's stoves have been brought to great perfection at *Hamburgh*, and enabled the poor to make very nourishing soup for a mere trifle *. Fuel is such a dear article in this city, that the fire alone to boil a few potatoes, amounts to nearly three-fourths of the price of the provisions; whereas by this new method, an hundred and fifty pounds of food may be stewed six hours for three-pence worth of fuel; consequently the firing will not cost quite five per cent.

A family of seven persons may be supported as follows: should it be more or less numerous, the ingredients must also be proportionably more or less.

	Pounds.	Ounces.
A sufficient quantity of water to weigh	10	0
Potatoes	2	5
Oatmeal	0	11
The stalest bread, or crumbled bread of every kind	0	11
Grey and yellow peas, or white beans	0	11
Pork or bacon, cut into very small squares	0	4
Salt	0	3
Beer-vinegar	0	8
Total,	15	5

The best method of preparing these ingredients, is to put the gruel and peas, or beans, into a pot filled with water the evening before, and leave them to steep all night. If the soup is to be ready for a twelve-o'clock dinner, the fire must be made under the pot at seven in the morning. This pot must be closely covered, and the fire must not extend beyond it, since it must boil very slowly.

This soup requires very little fire, particularly if the pot is shallow, and does not admit any air.

* One sufficient portion of this soup does not amount to quite a penny.

After the oatmeal and peas have boiled two hours, or two hours and a half, the potatoes and salt must be added, and in an hour afterwards the small squares of meat; as to the vinegar, it is not necessary to put it in till a quarter of an hour before the soup is ready. The little squares of bread are put into the dish the moment before it is served, and this to prevent it's being sodden. The necessity of chewing it, is thought to promote digestion.

The soup must be very frequently stirred whilst boiling, to prevent it's burning, and to mix the ingredients properly; the more it approaches to the consistence of jelly, the more nourishing it will be. If broth is wanted, a tenth part more water must be added.

Bread being one of the ingredients of this soup, it is unnecessary to eat any with it: that article had therefore better be reserved for breakfast or supper.

The salt, vinegar, and pork or bacon, make this soup very palatable; but it is absolutely necessary it should boil five or six hours very slowly.

The vegetables may be changed according to the season; carrots, white cabbage, and turnips, may be used, in the place of peas and beans; but the oatmeal and potatoes must never be omitted. Salt or smoked beef, onions cut small and fried in fat, or two or three herrings hashed up, may be substituted in the place of pork or bacon.

Even in the season when vegetables are scarce, the taste of the soup may be varied every day.

A very small additional expence will make it still more palatable. Instead of two pounds five ounces of potatoes, four pounds partly peeled and half boiled may be mixed with four ounces of flour, seasoned with a small quantity of salt and pepper: these may be made into thirty-two balls, and boiled in the soup.

The following is a statement of the expence of the ingredients which compose this soup :—

	Pence.	Far.
11 Ounces of oatmeal, at two-pence halfpenny a pound	1	8½
2 Pounds 8 ounces of potatoes	0	8½
11 Ounces of bread at a penny a pound	0	8½
11 Ounces of peas, at two-pence a pound	1	4½
4 Ounces of meat, at five-pence a pound	1	3
3 Ounces of salt at a halfpenny a pound	0	1½
4 Ounces of beer-vinegar	0	6
Total,	6	3½

None of the above-mentioned alterations add any thing to the price, except the last, which increases it about twelve farthings: but even this does not make the subsistence of seven persons amount to more than seven-pence. We have not, indeed, included the expence of fuel. If the chimney is an open one, and the pot shuts ill, twelve pieces of turf will be necessary: these cost two-pence; the expence, therefore, of one portion of soup, will amount to three-pence three farthings: but if a large quantity of soup is made in the newly-invented æconomical ovens, it will be much cheaper.

Seventy persons may be supported at the following expence:—

	Shillings.	Pence.
A hundred pounds weight of water.		
24 Pounds of potatoes	0	6
7 Pounds of Oatmeal, at two-pence halfpenny	1	5½
7 Pounds of peas, at two-pence	1	2
7 Pounds of bread, at a penny	0	7
2 Pounds of meat, at five-pence	0	10
5 Pounds of beer-vinegar	0	5
1 Pound of salt	0	6½
Carry forward,	5	0

	Shillings.	Pence.
Brought forward,	5	0
Twelve pieces of turf are sufficient to dress this soup in an æconomical oven: these cost	0	4
	<hr/>	
Total,	5	4

Which does not amount to one penny each person.

The author has had the satisfaction of seeing this process put to the proof. He has tasted this cheap and nourishing soup, and found it infinitely preferable to any thing hitherto invented for the subsistence of the poor.

NAMES
OF THE
PRINCIPAL AUTHORS,
WHO HAVE
TREATED OF THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE,
WITH
HISTORICAL NOTES AND CRITICISMS.

Anderson. This is an excellent work, intitled *Historical and Chronological Deduction of the Origin of Commerce, from the earliest Accounts*, (four volumes in quarto). It contains very essential particulars of the Hanseatic league, which I have frequently quoted in this publication. At the end of the third volume, (in the article *Hanse Towns*) there is a chronological table of the most remarkable events of the said league, very useful to consult; it may, however, be necessary sometimes to have recourse to the original work, to rectify some apparent mistakes in the dates.

Busch. (Professor) of the city of Hamburgh, has published an *Historical Essay on the Hanseatic League*. This is an esteemed work, and quoted by Mallet, in his history of the said league. It was printed at Bremen, in the beginning of Professor Smith's *Hanseatic Magazine*.

Fischer. *History of the Commerce of Germany.*

Gebhardi. *History of the Slavi and Vandals.*

Hagemerius (Joac.) Commentarius de Fœdere Civit. Hanseat.

Heinsius (D. M. Uldarius), is the author of the following work : *Dissertatio Historica de Civitatibus Hanseaticis. Tena MCLXXXIV.* In pages 17 and 18, there is a list of the Hanseatic towns, which, however, is far from accurate; and in pages 52 and 53, is the following remarkable quotation from *Coringius. (Exercit. iii. de Urbibus German.).* “*Præcipua sorte causa est sociarum urbium magnæ inæqualitas, quæ ut omnium fere seditionum mater est, et causa ita quoque omnes in universum societates solet dissolvere, cum nempe parvæ urbes exiguum ex hoc fœdere fructum percipere existimarent plerumque ad se majoribus trahentibus primum ab his negligi societas, mox et relinqui capit. Ad hoc, ipsæ illæ extræ gentes nauticis commerciis operam dare Hansicorum exemplo dedicerunt, quibus tamen in Germania non eæ immunitates concessæ. Hinc orta invidia et societatis suæ libertas passim est crepta, denique haud parum detrimenti attulit quoque Hansicis Flandorum et Hollandorum mercaturæ et rei nauticæ studiumque illæ gentis ab anno usque MCLXX. Cum primis autem post quingentesimum floruerunt. Primo enim interceptus monopolii fructus, mox præcipua Nautici Commerçii vis ab Hansicis in Hollandos tandem transit.*”

In the same page is another quotation from *Bertius (Peter)*, lib. iii. cap. 4. *Rerum German.* “*Hoc constat civitatum Hanseaticarum ope, gravia bella fuisse olim composita, discordias regum principumque vicinorum sopitas, pacem restitutam, quod magnum crederetur momentuui ipsorum potentia allatura, si se alterutri parti adjunxissent,*” &c.

Lambecius's Origines Hamburgicenses, contains some curious particulars of the origin and first ages of the Teutonic Hanse.

Mallet (P. H.), antient professor of histories, and member of several academies, published a work in octavo, 1805, with the following title :

De la Ligue Hanséatique De son Origine, ses Progrès, sa Puissance et sa Constitution politique jusqu' à son Declin au Seizième Siècle : (à Genève et à Paris.)

The able pen of the author of the *History of Denmark*, and that of the Swiss or Helvetians, may be easily traced in this publication, which is divided into fourteen chapters, the contents of which are as follow :

- Chapter 1.** A slight View of the Situation of the greater Part of Europe, at the end of the second Race of French Monarchs. Circumstances tending to promote the Interest of Towns in general. Their Augmentation, Industry, and Liberties, till the Epoch when they began to form Leagues, and confederate together.
2. Alliances entered into betwixt these Towns.
 3. Rivalship between different Sovereigns and the Towns. Progress of the Hanseatic League. Wars between the Hanse and Denmark.
 4. Different Branches of Trade. Commercial Institutions. Comptoirs. Factories. Privileges. Monopolies of the Hanse Towns.
 5. The Hanseatic League made with England, the South of Europe, and Germany. Progress of Commerce in general, exclusive of the League.
 6. Political Laws enacted by the Hanseatic League. It's interior Government, and exterior Relations.
 7. Divisions and Insurrections in the Hanseatic League. Methods employed to maintain Peace and Union.
 8. Further Particulars relative to the Commerce carried on between the Hanseatic League and the Northern Nations, and the Empire exercised over these Nations by the said League. Events in consequence. Detection of the Dutch Towns, which abandoned the League. Revolution at Lubeck.

9. Different Branches of Commerce carried on by the Hanseatics with various Countries, particularly with Norway.
10. Trade between the League and Denmark, Sweden, and Russia.
11. Trade between the League and England. Comptoir and Factory in London.
12. Trade between the League and the Low Countries.
13. The Government of the League. The Political Operations and Maxims which directed it, till the End of the Sixteenth Century, when it began to decline.
14. General and particular Causes of the Fall of the Hanseatic League.

Sartorius (George). His History of the Hanseatic League (*Geschichte des Hanseatischen Bund.* — *Gottingen*, 1802), has been extremely useful to Mr. Mallet, in the above publication: and merits being more particularly known, especially as I believe it has never been translated into English. The following short account of it is written by Mr. Mellin.

In the introduction, the author treats of the public acts and foundations of cities in the beginning of the middle ages. He describes the commencement of that spirit of liberty which first broke forth in the Italian towns, in what manner it was diffused throughout the rest of Europe; with what difficulty it gained footing in Germany; and the first privileges obtained by the towns in that country, which were granted to them at different epochs, by their several sovereigns.

The first book contains an account of the formation of the league in this first period of time. The treaty in 1241, between Hamburgh and Lubeck, supposed at present to be the origin of this association, ought

not to be regarded as such ; since it is proved by different acts, that many towns in Lower Germany had formed alliances both before and after that time. They were at first but few in number, but afterwards were considerably increased, and were united together for one common purpose : it is therefore difficult to determine the exact epoch of its origin, which is lost in these different unions. The spirit, and indeed the necessities of those remote times, made such associations of the greatest consequence ; not that the original allies had at first any idea of the great power they should obtain in future from the union of so many additional cities. The maritime towns formed the first and principal parts of this corporation, to which they gave their name. It was called *German Hanse*, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, but this name was not universally adopted till some time afterwards. The purpose for which this league was formed, the statutes, federative power, diets, political division, number of members, regulation of taxes, and laws at that period of time, are made known as clearly as the different titles still existing will allow. The deputies never had any written accounts of their assemblies till 1361 ; consequently all former titles must have been very defective.

The second book contains a description of the different wars in which the league was engaged. Some German towns began by forming a union, and carrying on a war in common ; but it was only in the ten last years of this period, that the whole league embraced the same quarrel. This war was much more favorable to the Hanse than could be expected, and was terminated by a treaty of peace with Denmark in 1370. A king of Sweden was deposed, and his crown placed on the head of a German prince, who was a mere tool of the league. A king of Norway was likewise forced by fire and sword to consent to all the wishes of the said league, which, if it did not entirely succeed in ruining the most powerful of all the Northern kingdoms, had at least sufficient influence to oblige Waldemar and his ministers to purchase a shameful peace by the most dishonorable conditions, which placed Denmark in a state of absolute dependence on the will of this haughty despotic association.

The third book gives an account of the commercial relations between the Hanse and the north-east part of Europe. If, in one point of view, the merchants of the middle ages enjoyed more advantages than those of the present day, from trade being entirely confined to cities, they in another suffered great inconvenience from the numberless obstacles thrown in their way by the ignorance of that unenlightened period.

The unremitting pains taken by the commons of the Hanse to repress the spirit of barbarism which reigned at that period, is a pleasing consideration to a reflecting mind. But what history continually proves, was presently verified in this case. The conqueror soon became a tyrant; because it is much easier to overcome foreign obstacles, than to vanquish oneself. The Hanse split upon this rock, and having surmounted all difficulties, tyrannically wished to usurp the possessions of others. In order to establish a lasting trade with foreign powers, it was necessary to have privileged comptoirs, exemption from tolls, and various other in-franchisements.

The commons of some of the German towns having become more powerful than the rest, gave the example, which was afterwards followed by the others. Privileged corporations were formed by degrees in foreign countries, and the Hanseatic commerce became general. The Hanse Towns did not scruple to make use of any means to gain their purpose. They did not, however, succeed in their endeavours to obtain a free trade in all the German cities; but this evil was repaired by forming an association with some independent towns. They likewise enjoyed general privileges and free liberty of commerce in the states of the Teutonic order, on the Baltic. They also contrived to monopolise the principal trade of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, consequently were in possession of all the productions of the North of Europe. They succeeded in destroying the active commerce, such as it was, of these people; and founded their commercial dominion on the intermediate trade between them and the West, which trade they did not obtain till some time afterwards. Their commercial politics, in those days, may be easily understood, the whole

system being then extremely simple ; it indeed continued so in the principal points, and it was only in some trifling particulars that it afterwards became more complicated. All that was then wanting to bring their system to perfection, was the right of freely selling and buying in the west of Europe.

The fourth book gives an account of the methods they employed to obtain this right. The Low Countries, being governed by the most liberal principles in all their commercial relations, soon granted the Hanse Towns all their reasonable demands ; but the merchants of those countries were too much enlightened to permit them the same monopoly as in the north of Europe. This refusal occasioned some dissensions. The power of the Hanse Towns, however, was so great in the North, that they became absolutely necessary to the Low Countries ; and this induced them to enter into a compromise.

The league treated England much more harshly, because it took advantage of the frequent disputes between the kings, lords, and the inhabitants of the flat parts of the island, with the cities and boroughs in the rest of the kingdom.

The commercial relations of the Hanse with France and Spain, appear to have been at all times very imperfect. The end of the first part contains some account of the German Hanseatic trade in the interior of Germany, the productions of that country, &c.

The first appendix treats of the printed documents and manuscripts consulted by the author in this work. It also contains some tables of tolls, explanatory of many things asserted in the text. The second appendix contains a table of the different acts which formed the basis of this history.

The second period comprehends the general history of the league, and the commerce of the German Hanse from the peace with Denmark in 1370, to the general peace of Germany in 1495.

This period is divided into eight sections, which form the same number of books.

The following is a short extract of the principal articles:—

Constitution of the Hanse during the space of one hundred and twenty-five years. It's independence relative to the emperor and empire. It's influence over the relations between the cities and their lords paramount, together with those of the citizens and their municipalities. It's dominion in Norway and the Baltic. Wars with Denmark and the united kings; and also with the western Europeans, who, constant rivals of the Hanse, interfered in the oriental commerce carried on by the Northern powers. History of that between the Hanse and Norway. Description of the comptoir at Bergen. History of the commerce between the Hanse and other nations to the north-east, particularly the Danes, Swedes, and Russians. History of that with the south-west of Europe, the Low Countries, France, Spain, Portugal, and afterwards with the Britannic Islands, with the means of communication both by sea and land. Efforts to arrange certain commercial institutes in common, with general maritime privileges, in order to maintain property, and insure credit. The influence of the Hanse on the indigenous productions, the interior commerce and industry of Germany.

General considerations, showing the splendor and greatness of the Hanse, at the same time proving that all commercial power is merely temporary. A great intermediate commerce formed the basis of the power of this league. The dominion of the Hanse over the Northern kingdoms, and the favor in which it was held by several countries to the west of Europe, were the means of it's possessing productions, which were reciprocally necessary to all parties: but the League soon wished to ingross them all to itself. Such a pretension was followed by oppression, and the aggrieved countries complained in the bitterest terms of the Hanse Towns. The sentiments inspired by acts of tyranny, the increase of knowledge, and the views formed by the wisest and most enlight-

ened part of the community, must naturally end in inducing the different nations to shake off the yoke of such insolent monopolisers.

De Thou (*James Augustus President*), has given some very interesting particulars relative to the League, in the fifty-first book of the history of his times. Some of them, however, are not very accurate, as will be proved in the present publication.

Villebrand. See *Mallet*, page 10. preface. Lig. Hans.

Verdenhagen (*Johan. Angel.*) His History of the Hanscatic League is, without exception, the most copious of any hitherto written on that subject. It is intitled *De Rebus publicis Hanscaticis Tractatus cum nobilium eorum iconisnics, descriptionibus. Tabulis Geographicis et Nauticis*—edit. *Francofapud Math. Merianum*, vol. in fol. an 1541. This book is better to consult, than to read; yet being sometimes inaccurate, and almost always deficient in critical observation, it must be quoted with precaution.

De Wit, (*John*), grand pensionary of Holland. His work, called *The Interest of Holland*, contains very judicious remarks on the commerce of the Hanse Towns, which he endeavoured to annihilate, and make it pass through the hands of the Dutch. His violent death proves how very little reliance can be placed on the gratitude of the people.

Heiss's History of the Empire, (book vi. chap. 25.) contains some trifling and inaccurate particulars of the Hanscatic league. *Father Barre*, also, in his History of Germany, touches slightly on the same subject under the events of the years 1163, 1253, 1256, and 1272.

After this account of the principal works on Hamburgh, and the Hanscatic league, I conclude with one, called *The Picture of Hamburgh, or the Englishman's Guide*: from which I have made some extracts, which I thought might be useful to travelers. I have placed them in the appendix, where they may be easily consulted. These articles relate to the population, churches, tables of Exchange, and time of shutting the gates of Hamburgh and Lubeck. The introduction I have copied for this work,

as it contains information very interesting to Englishmen crossing immediately to Hamburg. It will also serve to complete the voyage from Dresden to the mouth of the Elbe.

After losing sight of the coast of England, the first object that strikes the attention of the traveler, is Heligoland, the *sacra insula* of the ancients. This island belongs to Denmark, and is situated about twenty-four English miles N. W. from the mouth of the river Elbe. It is divided into two parts; the upper called the cliff, and the lower called the downs.

On the highest part of this island, the Hamburgers have, with the permission of the king of Denmark, erected a light-house, which is an important sea-mark, for ships entering the Elbe.

From the sea, you ascend to this beacon, by a flight of eighty-nine steps, from whence you have a very extensive view. The common employment of the inhabitants of this island is fishing, (chiefly shell-fish and haddock) of which they supply Hamburg market in abundance. By this employ they acquire such a knowledge of the sea, that they are looked upon as expert pilots. On a vessel approaching the red-buoy, which is off the island, one or more of the people come on board to take charge of the ship into the Elbe. After leaving the red-buoy, one presently discovers Ditmarsh, in Holstein, on the left; and the Dutchy of Bremen, on the right. You next come to the Vogel sands, and soon after to the white-buoy. Here you see on the right, New-werk, a fort of ten guns: it was built about 1265, and belongs to Hamburg. Soon after, you arrive at Cuxhaven, in the bailiwick of Ritzelbüttel, in the dutchy of Bremen. This was the general station of the packet-boats*.

* When the navigation of the Elbe is interrupted, as it is at present, by the French possessing the Hanoverian banks, the packets go to Husum, Tönningen, or to Heligoland, all which places are very inconvenient for the Continent, particularly the last.

The whole district of Ritzebüttel is about four English miles square; it consists of three parishes, viz. Graben, Dose, and Oldenwolde, which, together with the port of Cuxhaven, contain about two hundred and twenty houses, and three thousand, six hundred, and seventy inhabitants. The emperor, Frederick II., granted this territory to the Duke John, and Albrecht, of Saxony, in the eleventh century; and in 1372, it was mortgaged to the city of Hamburg, by Count Alverichs Lappe, the then proprietor, for two hundred and forty marks of silver. It was agreed, in case the money were not returned within two years, that then the said territory and it's appurtenances should remain for ever to Hamburg, and that the castle should be appropriated for the residence of the bailiff or governor.

The situation of this port renders it of great importance as a depôt, and for superintending the navigation of the Elbe. By it's locality, it is susceptible of becoming one of the most complete maritime stations in Europe. It might, at a trifling expence, be made to contain a thousand sail of first rate men of war: and as it lies midway between the Categate and the Texel, it may some time, perhaps, be thought an object worthy the attention of a Continental naval power.

One of the senators of Hamburg is governor of Ritzebüttel; he is changed every six years. The castle in which he resides is small, but regularly fortified, and is garrisoned by a company of twenty-five men.

The salary, with the revenue arising from the port dues, &c. is said to amount to about ten thousand marks yearly. The pilot-captain of the Elbe, resides near the port. He is charged with the superintendence of the pilots on the river, and the care of the navigation.

From Cuxhaven, which is fourteen German miles distant from Hamburg, you come by land in the post waggon, or by water in a passage-boat. The former conveyance costs about a guinea, or eighteen marks; the latter half that sum, and in fine weather is much the pleasanter.

In going up the Elbe at about six German miles, you arrive off Glückstadt, on the left shore. This is a regular fortified town, tolerably strong, and well built. Here is a very spacious market-place; near which stands the church, built of brick: against the steeple hangs, suspended, a large iron anchor, as a trophy of a victory which the Danes say they gained over the Hamburgers on the Elbe*. In this town is a public prison for malefactors, who are kept to hard labor for life: some are employed in cleaning the streets, carrying water, and in repairing the roads: they wear an iron on the left leg, and are attended by a soldier. If you continue by land from hence to Hamburgh, which is seven German miles, you pass through Stadt-Krempe, Elmshorn, and Pinneberg. If you continue your journey by water, you soon arrive off Stade, on the right bank of the river. This was formerly one of the Hanse Towns, and the residence of the English factory from 1586 till 1612, when it removed to Hamburgh. By the treaty of Munster, this place became subject to Sweden; but during the captivity of Charles XII. at Bender, after the battle of Pultava, the Danes possessed themselves of it, and sold it, together with the whole Dutchy of Bremen, and it's dependencies, to the elector of Hanover, then George I. king of England.

Vessels going up the Elbe, must give in here an account of their cargoes. For this purpose a guard-ship is stationed in the river. The captains, however, commonly send a boat on shore with the papers to be inspected, and a certain duty, called *stadter-zoll*, is paid in Hamburgh, on the cargo. About six miles higher up, you pass Blanknessen, on the left bank; this is a populous village, inhabited chiefly by fishermen. From hence to Altona, which is two German miles, you enjoy one of the most delightful views imaginable. This bank of the river is lofty, and covered with villas, turrets, summer-houses, and gardens, mostly belonging to Hamburgh citizens.

* This happened in the Hanse Town's war, about the middle of the 17th century, when as the Hamburgers were stationed off Glückstadt, to bombard it, a violent storm arose, which obliged them to cut their cables, and leave their anchors: the Danes took up one, and claimed the victory.

On the right or south side of the river, you have an extensive prospect of a flat, fertile country, bounded by distant rising hills. From Altona you enter the port of Hamburg.

Hamburg being the residence of foreign ministers for Lower Saxony, and very properly considered as the capital of the empire, on account of the abundance of all sorts of articles, whether for luxury or utility, it is wonderful that no city has worse inns and accommodations for strangers. Here is neither hotel nor tavern on a scale adequate to the rank of the place. The chief of those worthy to be noticed, are as in the following table: to each of which is subjoined the price of the ordinary.

The lodgings are in general a mark, or half-a-dollar per night, besides the waiter's hire.

NAMES OF HOTELS.	Where Situated.	Price of the Ordinary.
Kaiser's Hoff	Opposite the Stadt-house	28 dlr's. with $\frac{1}{2}$ bottle of wine.
Krauer, Amt house . . .	Johannis Strasse . . .	Ditto.
Schwartz Adier	Ditto	Ditto.
Rothen house	Reichen Strasse . . .	Ditto.
St. Petersburg	Jungfernstieg	No public Ordinary.
Stadt London	Ditto	Ditto.
Römische Kaiser	Ditto	Ditto.
König von England . . .	Neue Wall	2 marks with wine.
British Imperial Hotel and Coffee-house	Grossen Bleichen . . .	24 dollars without wine.
Globe Tavern	Stuben hook	1 mark, without wine.
Stadt-Hamburg	Grosse Becker strasse .	Ditto.
Hotel de Saxe	Valentines Kampe . . .	Ditto.
Schwarze Elephant . . .	Hopfen markt	Ditto, with $\frac{1}{2}$ bottle of wine.
Wilden Mann	Ditto	Ditto.
Stadt Brandenburg . . .	Ditto	No Ordinary.
English Hotel and Chop-house	Alten Steinweg	Served by portions.
Ober Gesellschaft	Pelzer Strasse	No Ordinary.
Nieder Gesellschaft . . .	Ditto	Ditto.

The number of *restaurateurs*, chop-houses, &c. has increased astonishingly, within these last twelve years.

* It being a ready-money trade, many poor emigrants have found a living, and at the same time procured an accommodation for the great influx of strangers. The principal among them are Carcelin's, in the Grossen Bleichen; and Guard's, in the Kleine Becker Strasse. Here one is served by portions, according to the bill of fare for the day. White and red wine are at one or two marks the bottle; ale and porter at one mark the bottle.

At the *tables d'hôte*, in the inns, there are commonly three dishes, besides dessert, and the company in most of them is composed of respectable people.

Those who choose English porter or ale, may have it generally at 12d. per bottle in these houses.

ERRATA.—VOL. I.

- Page 6, line 13, *for* ports, *read* nests.
 — 8, — 7, *for* person, *read* vessel.
 — 27, — 10, *for* country, *read* costume of the country.
 — 127, — 5, *delete* given above.
 — 168, Note above this table, insert page 159.

APPENDIX TO THE JOURNEY.

- Page ii, line 14, *for* Kolsneek, *read* Kolnueck.
 — —, *for* Kobantkine, *read* Kolhantkine.

DENMARK.

- Page 82, line 7, *for* marked, *read* worked.

VOL. II.

- Page 12, line 52, *for* Ruumeln, *read* Ruumtho.
 — —, — 35, *for* Killend, *read* Killeri.
 — 13, — 65, *for* Moronsa, *read* Idoronsa.
 — —, — 16, *for* Carlshamer, *read* Carlshamn.
 — 17, — 1, *for* Næa, *read* Næura.
 — 20, — 11, *for* Hosterman, *read* Holsterman.
 — 24, — 23, *for* Gotha, *read* Gieretha.
 — 25, — 25, *for* Venner, *read* Werner.
 — 45, — 15, *for* Agegne van, *read* Agegrufvan.
 — 58, — 26, *for* Le Maine, *read* Le Moine.
 — 61, — 27, *for* Nogari, *read* Nogari.
 — 89, — 24, *for* 6181, *read* 1681.
 — 96, — 6, *for* Fortie, *read* Fortia.
 — 108, — 17, *for* Skenksund, *read* Svensksund.
 — 253, — 14, *for* purses, *read* houses.
 — 261, — 2, *for* 1296, *read* 1396.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE PLATES.

VOL. I.

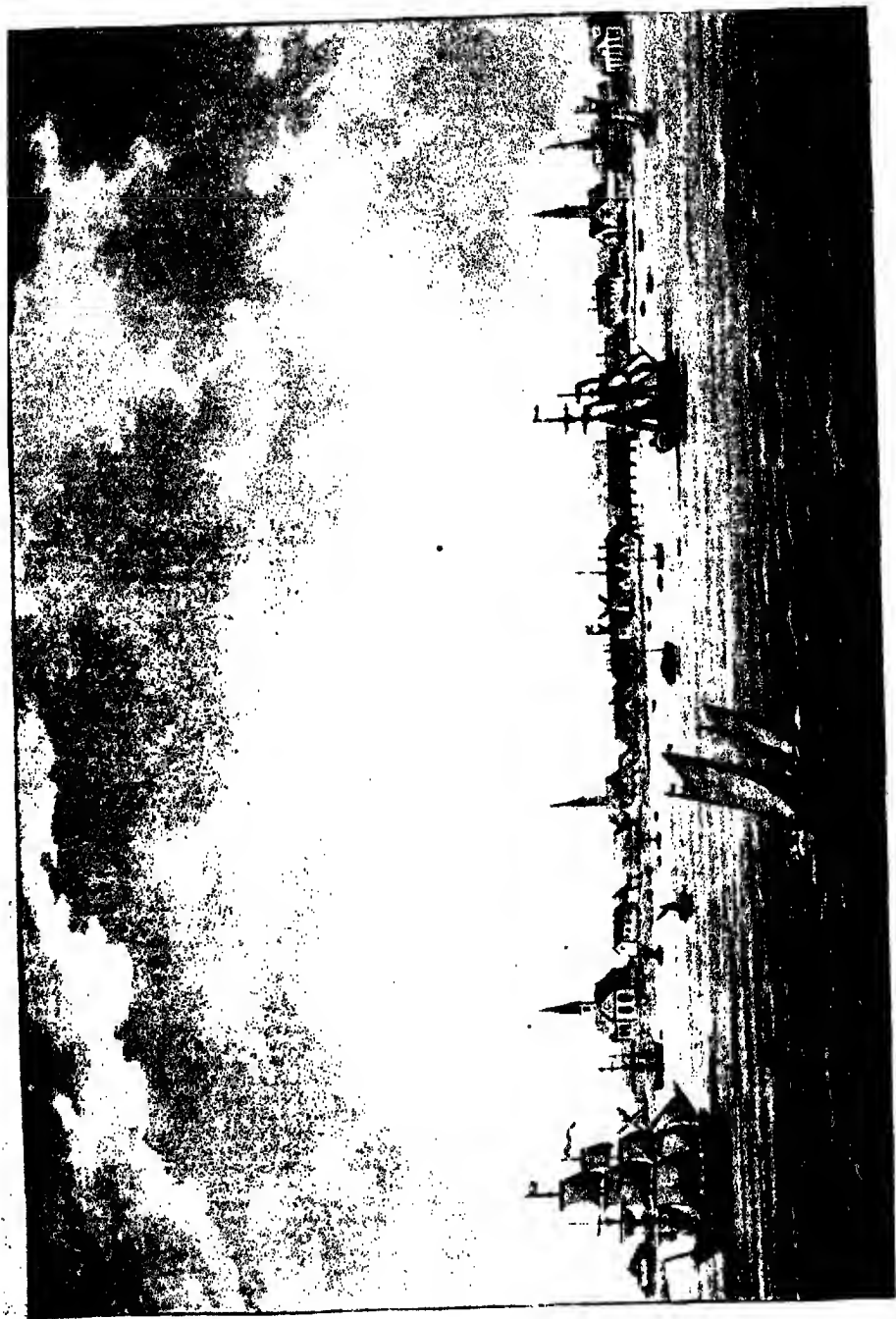
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TRAVELS
THROUGH
DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED,
A JOURNAL OF
A VOYAGE DOWN THE ELBE
FROM
DRESDEN TO HAMBURGH:

INCLUDING A COMPENDIOUS
HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE HANSEATIC LEAGUE.
BY LOUIS DE BOISGELIN,
KNIGHT OF MALTA.

WITH VIEWS FROM DRAWINGS TAKEN ON THE SPOT, BY DR. CHARLES PARRY.

*Suave, mari magno turbantibus æquora ventis
E terrâ magnum alterius spectare laborem;
Non quia vexari quemquam est jucunda voluptas;
Sed quibus ipse malis careas quia cernere suave est.
Suave etiam belli certamina magna tueri
Per campos instructa tui sine parte pericli.*

LUCR. DE REBUS NATURA, L. III. 11.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR WILKIE AND ROBINSON;
AND GEORGE ROBINSON, PATERNOSTER-ROW.

1810.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE following work, intitled, *Travels into Denmark and Sweden, by Louis de Boisgelin, Knight of Malta*, was some years since announced to the public; but the printing office at which it was printing having been burned down, the manuscript was consumed, which, with the Author's absence from England, has hitherto retarded the publication. Since his return to this country, he has taken no small pains to make it a second time ready for the press, and has added to the first plan, another Journey to Hamburgh, with an Abstract of the History of that City and the Hanseatic League.

The high estimation in which *Les Voyages de deux François* * *dans le Nord de l'Europe*, published by the author's fellow-traveler, the Comte de Fortia, is held on the Continent, is a fresh inducement for the publication of, not only the above Travels, but of those of a later date, by

* The Chevalier Louis de Boisgelin, and the Comte Aifonse de Fortia.

the Chev. de Boisgelin alone*. M. de Fortia's book, though by no means so complete as the present one, is so much in request abroad, particularly in Russia, that it is hardly possible to procure a copy, either of the original edition†, or of the counterfeit one published in Germany; and, for reasons which will appear very evident on perusing the work, there is no probability of it's being reprinted on the Continent. where however, excepting two or three inferior or revolutionary journals, which M. de Fortia has given himself the trouble of answering, it has met with universal applause in all the most celebrated publications of that nature. What has principally induced the Chevalier de Boisgelin to publish the English edition, is not only the present situation of the Continent, but the favorable judgement passed on the French one by several authors and journalists of this country, particularly by the writers of the Edinburgh Review, who speak of it as "admirable for extent and precision of information, and as being in general a work which cannot be too much attended to by those who wish to become acquainted with the statistics of the North of Europe."

The great events which for some years past have taken place in Ham-
burgh, Denmark, and Sweden, have determined the author of this work

* Through Holland, Westphalia, Hanover, Saxony, Prussia, Bohemia, Austria, and
Hamburgh.

† They are indeed so scarce, that the Prince de R—p—i assured me he had paid
fifty roubles for a single copy.

to commence the History of his Travels into the North of Europe, by what was originally intended to be the second part. The project lately formally announced of restoring the Hanse Towns to their former political state, has also induced him to insert a compendious History of the Hanscatic League, which may be regarded as the most extraordinary commercial association that ever existed. The part of this work intended to be published at a future period, will contain travels into Holland, Hesse, and Hanover; as likewise into the Empire, and Austria, during the reigns of the three last emperors: and also into Prussia in the three last reigns, and into Saxony at different periods, especially during a long residence on the Continent, from the peace of Amiens to the entrance of the French into Hamburgh.

These two Parts are intended to be followed by a third and fourth, containing Travels into Poland and Russia; and finally through England and Scotland.

The Travels into Russia, when they shall appear, will contain particulars, the perusal of which will perhaps surprise the reader, since he will find several which have been inserted in almost all the late publications on the empire of Russia, though the authors have never condescended to mention the source from which they drew their information.

From a motive of delicacy towards the author of the *Travels of two Frenchmen into the North of Europe*, and from the fear of wounding the *amour propre* of some Russians of my acquaintance, I shall forbear mentioning the peculiar praises bestowed on this part of the Comte de Fortia's work. (See, amongst others, Mr. Mellin, *Journal Encyclopedique*, tome v. page 498, &c.). Indeed, I so much wish to prove how little that author was the enemy of Russia, that I propose printing, at the end of the *Travels into Russia*, his Refutation of three French works, which have been translated into English *, and which may truly be regarded as injurious to that nation. This Refutation is indeed so strong, that it exposed him to the suspicion of being bribed by their government.

* 1st. History of Anecdotes of the Revolution in Russia in the Year 1762. Translated from the French of M. de Rulhière. Printed for Longman in 1797. With an Engraving of Catherine II.

2d. Philosophical, Political, and Literary Travels in Russia, during the Years 1788 and 1789. Translated from the French of Chantreau. 2 vols. 8vo., 1794. Printed at Perth, by Morrison. With a Map.

3d. Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg. Translated from the French. In 2 vols. 8vo. Printed in London, for Longman, in 1800; with an additional volume in 1802.